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Volume 42, No. 1, 2003

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I.B.N.S. Journal

Volume 42, No. 1, 2003 Editor, Steve Feller

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President's Message

Greetings to all, I hope that everyone is having a good 2003, hobby wise.



I recently attended the Paper Money Show in Valkenburg, The Netherlands. What a show. I can truthfully state, that I believe that this is the largest foreign paper money show in the world. There were 23 dealers from The Netherlands, alone. There were 13 from Germany, 11 from France, 3 or 4 from Russia, and many more. You had to see it, to believe it. I want to thank I.B.N.S. member Jos Eijsermans and his organization for having such a grand show, and especially thank him for the royal way he treated me and other I.B.N.S. Board members. I met many I.B.N.S. members there, and a good show was had by all.

In mutual agreement, Director Mark Turner has replaced Larry Smulczenski as Chairman of the Education Committee. We wish to thank Larry for a job well done. We welcome Mark into this position.

Mark has promised to provide a great program for the general membership meeting, to be held on June 14, 2003, in Memphis.

The next show, of importance, will be held in Memphis, June 13-15, 2003. I hope to see many of you there.

If there are any problems, on anything, please contact the undersigned, or another officer, and we will try to straighten them out.

Thank you and best regards to all.

Bob Brooks President, I.B.N.S.

Editor's Column



I am particularly proud of my daughter Ray's column on Monopoly money. The details she found are very moving—especially the playing

of monopoly in the Theresienstadt ghetto by the kids. Monopoly, the classic capitalistic and indeed American game, is a world-wide phenomenon.

Memphis is around the corner! Ray and I will arrive there on Thursday, June 12. We are looking forward to it as usual. It is always a lot of fun.

I would like to apologize for the late arrival of the magazine. An illness on the staff delayed things a bit.

On August 28, 2003 an opening will take place at Holocaust Museum Houston of one of the world's most complete collections of money used in the Holocaust of World War II. This superlative collection was donated by member and friend Charlton E. Meyer, Ir. The exhibit will first be in Houston and then the plan is to have it travel around the United States. Your editor is writing the captions for the exhibit and will give a keynote address at the opening. Details may be found at: www.hmh.org. This collection is worth making a special trip to see-Iknow as I viewed it at length this past March.

Hope to see you soon in Memphis or elsewhere,

Best, Steve Feller, Editor



The ghetto version of Monopoly.

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Letters to the Editor

Dear Editior,

I made an interesting discovery regarding the 100 and 500 yen specimens of Japan, P-90s and 91s. The pair which sold in Memphis last year for \$1,495 each were not the ones listed as 90s and 91s, but they are the newer variety. I have the scans of them attached for comparison.

The newer ones sold at Memphis of course had to be cheaper, because they are specimens of variety: c white paper, the red word MI-HON in 2 Japanese characters is only on the right face side of the note and the perforated words MI-HON run accross the entire note. The individual specimen serial number is underneath the MI-HON in red on the right side instead on the left bottom. So I suggest P-90s2, as c., but white paper and only one time MI-HON in red. Same for the 500 yen note 91s.2 as c,but white paper. This means the 2 attached notes are definetely the cheaper varieties and there is no 1000 ven-note known to me in this way.

Attached please view the notes, which were sold in Memphis and the 3 specimens, varieties as the only kind



Specimens listed in Pick.



Specimens listed in Pick.



100 yen Specimens sold in Memphis 2003



500 yen Specimens sold in Memphis 2003

listed in the SCWPM, Vol 2, 9th edition which I acquired these days.

With my best regards to all I.B.N.S. members, I remain:

Rolf Marklin, I.B.N.S. # Casilla/POBox: 17-22-20309 Cumbaya, Quito, ECUADOR, South America rmarklin@interactive.net.ec

Dear Editor,

I found Mr. Hoogendoorn's article re Aruba enlightening, be that in a political or ethno-geographical context. However, I wish to correct an erroneous numismatic remark.

He states correctly the issuance of IDENTICAL denominations for 1986 and 1990: 5, 10, 25, 50 and 100 florins [Pick # 1-5 and 6-10].

But the 1996-issued denominations [all dated 16 July 1993] and listed as Pick #11-15 were ALTERED. The 5 florin note was DELETED due to replacement by a 5 F1 COIN. On the other hand, a 500 F1 note was ADDED. Hence Pick # 11-15 are comprised of 10, 25, 50, 100, 500 florin notes.

Mr. Hoogendorn refers to the majority of Arubans being of INDIAN origin. A non-versed reader may construe "INDIAN" as either originating from INDIA or of AMERICAN-INDIAN origin. Majority of Arubans are of ARAWAK INDIAN origin. Until a few centuries ago [prior to brutal subjugation by European powers] Arawak Indians lived in large numbers on the South-American continent. Their sea-faring capability took them also to the southern-most Caribbean islands via Venezuela's Lake Maracaibo and they left traceable remnants of their indigenous culture [as amply described by Mr. Hoogendorn].

Herbert Stein, I.B.N.S. #7126 65-32 171 St. Fresh Meadows NY 11365-2026

Dear Editor,

As a bank note collector for only six years and an I.B.N.S. member for less than one year, I am not up-to-date with my bank note catalogs. My books date back to 1997.

Every year, I travel to the FUN (Florida United Numismatics) in Orlando, FL.

The third year I visited the show, I purchased a beautiful 20 pesos Costa

Rican bank note, of the second series 1891-99. With amazing blue and purple underprinting and featuring valiant vignettes, this bank note was a crisp example of something I had gone to the show for. In addition, at a low price of just thirty-five dollars, I had to have it.

As what I thought of as my prize for the three-hour journey from Sarasota, Florida, to Orlando, I immediately went through my pre-1961 issues book.

Unfortunately, I found no description of the bank note. However, as I checked my specialized issues book as a last resort, I found a picture of the 5 pesos denomination and a description of all denominations of up to 100 pesos. The book only listed the 5 pesos as having a value of ninety-five dollars in XF condition.

I was pleasantly surprised, because even though the book did not list a value for the denomination I had, I believed that if a lower denomination in a slightly lesser condition booked at ninety-five dollars, than I had quite a prize.

It never came to my mind that I actually had an unsigned remainder.

As clueless as I was, I continued my search for the missing value. Price lists online shot up over time for the 5 pesos note \$100. \$130, \$150!

Even so, I could not find any other denomination!

Only two months ago I was paging through a brand new specialized issues volume at my local coin shop, I couldn't help but take a look and see if my bank note was still an oddball. I was thrilled to see a value, but only until I realized it was only forty dollars. The description described it as an unsigned remainder, or a proof. I knew my search had come to an end, but not the one I was expecting. As my advice for dealers, collectors, and I.B.N.S. members, buy it signed!

Sincerely, Benjamin H. Kirsch

Dear Editor,

This is a follow up to my earlier letter which appeared in Volume 41, No. 3, 2002, proposing that we, as a group of collectors and enthusiasts of world bank notes, attempt to establish unofficial Top-10 lists of notes under various categories, e.g., most beautiful, most desired, biggest, smallest, highest denomination, etc. I believe such lists are an interesting, and important, method to systematically organize the more fun aspects, as opposed to the serious numismatic study, of our hobby. The general references section of my local bookstore has numerous books with lists of just about everything, why not papermoney!

I would like to thank the many members who sent in their lists (by mail and e-mail) of "10 most beautiful" notes to me, everyone's input is included here. Most letters included encouraging remarks regarding the "Top-10" lists idea/project, and many suggested interesting, and some arguably controversial, topics for such lists. What is noticeably interesting is that there isn't any one, two, or three notes that stand out as being the clear choices as the "most beautiful" notes. In fact, without exception, no note made it on more than three list; every list sent to me contained different notes from the other lists. Such is the subject of 'beauty", it is all in the eyes of the beholder; as alluded to by Mr. Harold Don Allen in the previous issue of this Journal. Surely, some find beauty in the overall attractiveness of a note, others in its unique design and artful colors, and undoubtedly some may find beauty in the high denomination/value of it; and one confessed in his letter accompanying his top-10



2003 Paper Money Shows

June 12-15, 2003

Memphis Show
k County Convention Cent

Cook County Convention Center Memphis, Tennessee

July 30-August 3, 2003
ANA Convention
Baltimore Convention Center
Baltimore, Maryland

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St. Louis Hilton Airport St. Louis, Missouri

beautiful notes list his finding beauty amongst the nudes on notes!

The following notes, listed in alphabetical order by country of issue, contains the top three choices of the top-10 most beautiful notes received:

Austria 1000 kronen 1902 P.8 Bhutan 1 ngultrum (1981) P.5 Brazil 5 cruzeiros 1962 P.176 Canada 20 dollars 1935 PS.972 Columbia 10000 pesos 1999 P.437 Columbia 5000 pesos 1999 P.447 Comores 2500 francs 1997 P.13 Cook Islands 3 dollars 1987 P.1 Costa Rica 20 pesos PS.165 Costa Rica 5 colones 1901 PS.173 Costa Rica 5 colones 1968-92 P.239 Cuba 3 pesos 1995 P.113 Djibouti 500 francs 1927 P.9 France 50 francs 1994 P.89 French Antilles 10 francs (1964) P.8 Germany 100 mark 1908 P.33 Ireland - Republic 20 pounds (1961-76) P.67 Hungary 50 pengo 1932 P.99 Laos 500 kip 1959 P.6 Mali 100 francs (1971-73) P.11

continued on page 23

Discoverers and Explorers on Latin American Notes

by Miguel Chirinos, I.B.N.S. #5992

Some currency units of Latin American countries have their origin in notable people in history. Before I wrote about Indian Chiefs which appear on Latin American notes. Now, I would like to share with you brief biographies of some discoverers and Spanish explorers whose portraits are on Latin American bank notes. In addition, some cities, historical monuments and places, and of course, some monetary units were named in honor of this group of adventurers.

DISCOVERS

Christopher Columbus (Colon)

The currency units of the Republics of Costa Rica and El Salvador, located in Central America, were adopted in honor of Christopher Columbus (Cristobal Colón in Spanish and Cristoforo Colombo in Italian).

Christopher Columbus (1451-1506) a Genovese sailor and explorer, died after four voyages to the New World, he was convinced that he had discovered a sea route to Asia.

Columbus' desire to sail westward was fueled in part by maps and writings of a Florentine humanist Paolo Toscanelli. When Columbus sailed in 1492, in three ships financed by the King and Queen of Spain, he finally reached land in the West on October 12 of that year. In the course of his own further voyages he explored much of what we know today as the Caribbean and parts of Central America.

Costa Rica was discovered by Columbus in 1502, during his last voyage to the new world, and was a colony of Spain from 1522 until its independence in 1821. Columbus named the territory *Nueva Cartago* (New Cartago). The name Costa Rica (Rich Coast) was not generally employed until 1540. In 1896, Costa Rica adopted the "Colón" as their currency unit.

In 1942, Columbus' portrait appeared on notes of 50 colones.

In 1996, Banco Central de Costa Rica issued a new 5,000 colones 100th anniversary commemorative.

El Salvador was discovered by Columbus in 1502, during his last voyage to the new world. In 1821, El Salvador and other Central American provinces declared independence from Spain. El Salvador named their currency unit "Colón" in 1919.

In 1997, Banco Central de Reserva de El Salvador issued new notes and Columbus appears on the face of all denominations of this Central American nation.

Also, Columbus appears on notes of the Dominican Rep. (500 pesos) and Bahamas (\$1) commemorative issue of the 500th anniversary of the Columbus voyage (1992).

Pedro Alvarez Cabral

Pedro Alvarez Cabral (1467-1520) was a Portuguese navigator. Cabral departed for India on March 9,1500, in command of a fleet of thirteen caravels, one squadron of which was commanded by Bartolomeu Dias, the first Portuguese to double the Cape of Good Hope, in order to capitalize on the discovery by Vasco da Gama of the sea route to India. On March 18 the Canary Islands were sighted. Four days later, on March 22, the party passed the Cape Verde Islands, by which time they had lost one ship. Instead of following the West African coast as Dias had done, Cabral, following Vasco da Gama's instructions, sailed south after leaving the Cape Verdes until he crossed the doldrums, then southwest in order to take advantage of the trade winds to the latitude of the Cape of Good Hope, and then east to approach the cape.





Christopher Columbus on the bank notes of the Bahamas and El Salvador.





1 cruzeiro novo on 1000 cruzeiro.

1 balboa note of Panama withVasco Nenez de Balboa.

On April 22, during Easter week, the fleet sighted Monte Pascoal on the eastern coast of South America, 200 miles (322 Kin) south of Bahia (Salvador). Cabral named the land Terra da Vera Cruz and immediately dispatched a ship back to Lisbon, Portugal with the news. The fleet sailed northward to Porto Seguro (present-day Bahia Cabralia), where a landing was made. On May 2 the fleet resumed the voyage to the Cape of Good Hope.

Although most authorities believe Cabral's discovery of Brazil was fortuitous, he may have been carrying secret instructions which caused him to sail farther west than necessary for a doubling of the Cape of Good Hope in order to determine what, if anything, lay at the extreme western part of the area assigned to Portugal under the Treaty of Tordesillas.

Passed over in favor of Vasco da Gama for the command of the third voyage to India, Cabral retired to Santarem, where he died in the 1520s. His voyage firmly established the sea route to India, and his discovery secured Brazil for Portugal. Credit for the discovery of Brazil properly belongs to Spanish navigator called Vicente Yanez Pinzon, who reached the easternmost point of South America on January 20 or 26,1500.

Alvarez Cabral appears on notes of 1,000 cruzeiros (1961-1963) and a new issue of 1 cruzeiro novo on 1,000 cruzeiro (1966-1967) in Brazil. Also, Alvarez Cabral is featured on the 1,000 escudos (1996-1998) of Portugal.

The Central Bank of Brazil plans to launch waterproof plastic (polymer) bank notes in the year 2000 as part of the country's 500th anniversary celebrations. The new 10 real note will serve as a trial run prior to the entire Brazilian paper currency being renewed. The new 10 real note will feature Pedro Alvarez Cabral on the front and a digital image map of Brazil on back.

Vasco Nunez de Balboa

The currency unit of the Republic of Panama is named in honor of a Spanish explorer called Vasco Nunez de Balboa (1475-1519). Balboa was the first man who crossed the Isthmus of Panama in 1513 and discovered the Pacific Ocean, Francisco Pizarro (conqueror of Peru) was with him, and heard an Indian tell of a wonderful land of gold and pearls far to the south. At the time he was not free to follow up this lead, but he joined another

grizzled veteran of the Indies, Diego de Almagro, in organizing a shoestring expedition of two small ships that set out from the Spanish colony at Panama to explore the wild jungles along the Pacific coast of Colombia.

Balboa recalled from his voyage with Bastidas that a town existed on the western shore of the Gulf of Uraba, and the party sailed across to the Darien River, where they founded the town of Santa Maria de Ia Antigua del Darien (today just Darien). Here the Indians may not have been friendly, but they did not use poisoned arrows, and food and even some gold were available.

The triumph was short-lived. King Ferdinand, heeding the complaints of Martin Fernandez de Enciso and others, appointed Pedro Arias de Avila (better known as Pedrarias The Cruel) as governor of Panama. The latter, filled with hatred and envy, bid his time (he even arranged the marriage by proxy of one of his daughters to Balboa) and then tricked Balboa into relaxing his guard. Arrested by Francisco Pizarro, Balboa was tried for treason to the Spanish Crown and publicly beheaded in Ada between January 13 and 21, 1519.

In 1821, Panama broke from

Spanish rule to become a province of Colombia.

In 1903, U.S. Congress authorized President Roosevelt to pay \$40 million for a French company's rights to dig a canal linking the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. With U.S. collusion, Panama declared independence from Colombia. Work began on the canal under a U.S-Panamanian treaty.

El Banco Central de Emision de Ia Republica de Panama issued notes until 1941. However, balboas circulate only in coins. The U.S. dollar is the paper currency and it is used for all kinds of commercial transactions. The dollar also has contributed to Panama's low inflation rate, the lowest on the continent. Another contributor to Panamas stable environment is the freedom to move funds in and out of the country without charge.

On Sept. 7, 1977 President Jimmy Carter of the United States and Omar Torrijos of Panama signed a treaty. Thereafter, the U.S. presence was gradually reduced until Panama assumed full control of the canal on Dec. 31, 1999. New bank notes of Panama are expected.

Francisco Hernandez de Cordoba

The cordoba is the currency unit of Nicaragua, located in Central America. Francisco Hernandez de Cordoba was a Spanish explorer whose ships reached Yucatan (today one of Mexico's states) in the early spring of 1517. A fleet of ten native long boats, each containing up to forty natives, went to meet the Spanish and some boarded

Cordoba's ship. The next day a party escorted Cordoba and his party ashore into an ambush. The Spanish, armed with muskets, managed to flee to one of the temples. There they plundered much gold and many other valuable objects, which they took to their waiting ships, and sailed from the place that was later to be called Cape Catoche.

Cordoba's ships proceeded along the Yucatan Peninsula, where they encountered more people who regarded them as enemies and attacked them. Cordoba eventually set sail for Cuba to begin telling the world about the Maya people, their cities, and their wealth.

Some historians believe that the markets and trading of the Nicarao may have been stimulated by the great Aztec Empire to the north. Until the Spaniards destroyed the Aztecs in the 1500s, there was an Aztec trading colony located within the borders of present-day Nicaragua. It was believed by the Spaniards that the Aztecs used this colony to bring emeralds up to Mexico from somewhere in South America.

Finding the source of these emeralds first attracted Spanish explorers to the "land of the Nicarao," which would soon become the Spanish colony of Nicaragua. The Spanish conqueror Hernan Cortes wanted to find the source of the Aztecs' emeralds. About 1523 he sent one of his lieutenants, Pedro de Alvarado, known as the "conqueror of Guatemala," south to Nicaragua. Mean-

while, another Spanish conquistador Pedro Arias de Avila, better known as Pedrarias governor of Panama, sent one of his lieutenants, Hernandez de Cordoba, to enter Nicaragua from the South. He was searching for the same gems. In this struggle the Southerners were successful, and Cordoba became the first Spanish explorer of any importance in Nicaragua.

Cordoba founded Granada in 1524 close to Cocibolca Lake (today Nicaragua Lake) and in 1525 he founded Santiago de los Caballeros de Leon close to Xolotlan Lake (today Managua Lake). Over the next three hundred years of Spanish rule, these two cities would become Spain's most important colonial outposts in Nicaragua.

Efforts to settle Central America, encouraged by the Spanish government, were complicated by conflict claims. Gonzalez de Avila returned from Hispaniola and defeated some of Codobas' forces. Cordoba had dreams of making Nicaragua a separate Spanish province, and he rebelled against Pedrarias, who came north to Nicaragua with an army. After a year of fighting, Hernandez de Cordoba surrendered to Pedrarias, who had him executed and then remained in Leon as governor of Nicaragua for a brief period of time, from 1526 to 1531.

In 1821, Nicaragua declared independence from Spain. The next year Nicaragua united with the Mexican Empire of Agustin de Iturbe, then in 1823 with the Central American Republic. When the federation was dissolved, Nicaragua





Francisco Hernandez de Cordoba on notes of Nicaragua

declared itself an independent republic in 1838.

Nicaragua adopted the "cordoba" in 1912 until 1987. This unit was called new cordoba until 1990 and finally it was renamed cordoba oro and remains so.

Sebastian de Benalcazar

Sebastian Moyano was born about 1495 in Benalcazar, located in a Spanish province of Cordoba. Though Moyano was his real name, he became known by the name of his hometown.

He went to the West Indies while in his mid-twenties (sometime between 1507 and 1511) and by 1522 was listed as an *encomendadero* in what is now Panama. He fought with Francisco Hernandez de Cordoba during the conquest of the present-day Nicaragua and Honduras from 1524 to 1527. In 1525 he was listed as one of the founders of the city of Leon in Nicaragua and became *alcalde* (mayor) of the colony.

In 1532 Benalcazar arrived in Peru to help his friends, Francisco Pizarro and Diego de Almagro, conquer the Inca Empire. As captain of the Spanish horsemen, he played a major role in the conquest of Cajamarca and received a share of the vast Incas riches.

When the Inca General Ruminahui led a revolt in Quito in 1534, Pizarro authorized Benalcazar to conquer the city. Departing San Miguel de Piura in February 1534, Benalcazar crossed the barren coastal plain of northern Peru and entered the hills on the main Inca highway. When he arrived at Quito (modern capital of Ecuador) in June 1534, he found that the city had been evacuated and burned. Benalcazar slaughtered women and children and tortured their leaders in his efforts to locate the city's hidden gold, silver and Indian treasures. In 1535, Benalcazar next pushed into the southern highlands of Ecuador and founded the city of Riobamba. Returning to the coast, he founded the port of Guayaquil.

Starting in 1536, Benalcazar pushed farther north, exploring a large area of modern Colombia and founding the modern cities of Popayan (1536) and Cali (1537).

Then, in 1538, he led an expedition into the heartland of Colombia, still searching for the elusive "ElDorado." Reaching the plateau of Bogota, he found that Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada was already in control of the emerald-rich Chibcha Indian realm.

The King of Spain named Benalcazar captain general of the province of Popayan (comprising the territory from Quito north to Cartagena, in modern Colombia). Benalcazar return to Popayan in 1541 and supported the royalist side during the Peruvian Civil Wars (1541-46). In 1541 he killed Jorge Robeldo, who had encroached on his domain while he was away. As a result of the political pressure exerted by Robeldo's widow, Benalcazar was eventually arrested and condemned for the murder. In April of 1551, on way to Spain to plead his case, he died at Cartagena, Colombia.

His portrait appears on the 10 sucres note (1968-1988) of Ecuador in tribute to this Spanish explorer

who founded the modern Ecuadorean cities of Quito, Guayaquil and Riobamba.

Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada

Jimenez de Quesada was born about 1510 in Cordoba, Spain, and studied at the University of Salamanca. He had an established law practice in Granada by 1533, but in 1535 he left Spain for the New World to become magistrate of Santa Marta, a settlement on the Caribbean coast of present-day Colombia. In 1536 he led an extraordinary expedition through the jungle maze and rugged terrain of the Colombian interior, intending to reach Peru.

Traveling along the flooded banks of the Magdalena River during the rainy season, the party survived attacks by crocodiles and other wild animals, plagues of insects, and intense heat. Pressing onward, Jimenez de Quesada and his men covered only one mile a day, hacking their way through dense undergrowth and moving through snake-infested swamps. It took them eight months to reach the Indian village of Tora (present-day Barrancabermeja) on the Magdalena, only 300 miles from their starting point.

Hearing that beyond the mountains lived an advanced Indian civilization that mined gold and emeralds, Jimenez de Quesada decided to abandon the Magdalena River and penetrated farther inland (to the east). By March of 1537 he was in the uplands of present-day Colombia with only 166 men left. After subduing the Tunja and Cundinamarca Indians, Jimenez de Quesada and his men reached the plateau of Bogota the land of the Chibcha Indians, where they found gold, emeralds and semiprecious stones. The Chibcha were friendly to the Spaniards and gave them gifts of gold hearts, each weighing two pounds. Jimenez de Quesada named the new land he had conquered New Granada and founded



Sebastian De Benalcazar on note of Ecuador. the city of Santa Fe de Bogota.

In 1539 two other conquistadores reached the plateau of Bogota: Nikolaus Federmann and Sebastian de Benalcazar. The three expeditionary forces agreed to leave together to submit their various claims to the Council of the Indies in Spain.

After traveling in France and Portugal from 1541 until 1545, he returned to Spain where he received the title of marshal of New Granada.

In 1551 he went back to Bogota, where he was respected as farsighted and humane leader by Spaniards and Indians alike.

Jimenez de Quesada made one last expedition in 1569 to search east of the Andes for *El Dorado*, the legendary city of gold. Travelling across the mountains and plains of New Granada, he got as far as the Orinoco River where modern Colombia and Venezuela meet. After three years of great suffering from disease and near starvation, those left in his expedition gave up and returned to Bogota, unsuccessful in their quest.

Jimenez de Quesada died in Bogota in 1579, after spending his last years writing an accurate account of his conquest of New Granada. An honest and gifted leader, he managed to explore and conquer a huge area of Colombia without the usual wide-scale bloodshed.

His portrait appears on the note of the 1 peso (1938) as a tribute to a unique Spanish *con quistadores* in that he pursued diplomacy over bloodshed in his conquests.

Pedro de Valdivia

Pedro de Valdivia (1502-1554) was born in the district of La Serena in Estremadura, Spain. Joining the Spanish army early, he fought in Flanders and then at the battle of Pavia in 1525. He reached America in 1535, spent an uneventful year in Venezuela, and moved on to Peru. There he took part on the side of Hernando Pizarro in the battle of Las Salinas in 1538, which saw Almagro

defeated and captured. Valdivia had married in Spain, but in Peru he became attached to the widow Ines de Suarez, who accompanied him to Chile as his mistress.

Early in 1540, with Francisco Pizarro's permission, Valdivia left Cuzco for Chile with a small expedition and one Sancho de Hoz as partner. On the way, Sancho seeking sole leadership, tried to murder Valdivia but failed. He was pardoned but from then on had to accept subordinate status.

In central Chile, Valdivia founded Santiago on the Mapocho River in 1541, and three years later Juan Bohon established La Serena in the Coquimbo Valley. These were followed by Concepcion (1550), Villarrica and Imperial (1551), Valdivia and Angol (1552). Valparaiso, though used as a port by the Spaniards from the start, had no considerable population until much later. Santiago was largely destroyed, soon after its foundation, by Aconcagua Native Americans during Valdivia's absence.

When Gonzalo Pizarro's rebellion began in Peru, the insurgents attempted unsuccessfully to win Valdivia to their side. Early in 1548 Valdivia joined the royal army of Pedro de Ia Gasca in Peru, and his military experience counted heavily in the victory of Xaguixaguana on April 9 of that year. Valdivia returned to Chile with his position and prestige considerably strengthened.

Earlier, on learning of Francisco Pizarro's murder in 1541, Valdivia had removed Chile from Peruvian

control and acknowledged only the royal authority, an arrangement the Crown found acceptable. Secure now in his own domain, he pushed exploration southward and aided the development of the country by dividing the land among his ablest followers and parceling out the Indians in *encomiendas*. Chile possessed minerals, but Valdivia definitely subordinated mining to agriculture and stock raising.

Valdivia had a clash with the warlike Araucanians beyond the Bio-Bio River in 1550 in which he defeated them but by no means broke their will to resist, a will that grew stronger when the conquistador established the Concepcion settlement in their territory. He moved against them in 1553 and built a fort at Tucapel. He had earlier captured and presumably made friends with Lautaro, an Araucanian youth who became his groom. Lautaro secretly remained true to his own people and rejoined them to show Chief Caupolican a means by which Valdivia could be taken. The Spanish leader was captured on Christmas Day, 1553. Though different accounts exist of his execution, the likeliest is that, Pilmaiguen, hit him in the head with a war club.

Valdivia's portrait is on notes of 20 pesos 1947 and on 500 pesos (1977-1997) in honor of the conquest of Chile.

Juan Ponce de Leon

Ponce de Leon was born about 1460 into a poor but noble family living in the village of San Tervas de



Pedro de Valdivia on note of Chile Campos in the province of Leon, Spain. He was given a basic military education and became a page to the prince of Castile, who would later become King Ferdinand of Castile and Aragon. His career as an explorer began when he accompanied Christopher Columbus on the latter's second voyage to the New World in 1493. Then in 1502 he joined Nicolas de Ovando on his expedition to Hispaniola (the Island now occupied by Haiti and the Dominican Republic). Ponce de Leon would spent most of the rest of his life in the New World, faring well politically, financially, and militarily.

First, he became the governor of the Province of Higuey (in present day Haiti) and proceeded to develop the area peacefully, gaining great personal wealth in the process. In 1508 Ponce de Leon explored the island of Borinquen as a result of an invitation by its Indian inhabitants. There he started a settlement and renamed the island San Juan de Puerto Rico.

Ponce de Leon left Puerto Rico on March 3, 1513, with three ships, sailing northwest. He sighted the mainland of Florida on March 27 and landed on April 2 just north of what is now the city of St. Augustine. He named the new land Tierra Ia Florida (Land of Flowers) in honor of its discovery on Easter Sunday, called Pascua Florida in Spanish.

At sea again, Ponce de Leon sailed south along the east coast of Florida and discovered the Bahama Channel, which proved to be of inestimable value since it provided a new sea route from the West Indies to Spain. Continuing his voyage, he next traced the contours of the Florida peninsula, skirting the Florida Keys and sailing north along the west coast, perhaps as far as Pensacola Bay, before returning south. He continuing sailing along the southwest coast, stopping at some islands that he named the Tortugas (now called the Dry Tortugas). He returned to Puerto Rico on Sep. 21,1513.

Returning triumphant to Spain in 1514, Ponce de Leon was knighted, given a personal coat of arms, finally granted a royal patent to colonize "the islands of Bimini (north of Cuba) and Florida," and officially named the *Adelantado* Don Juan Ponce de Leon, Governor of the island of Bimini and Florida.

His second expedition, intended to colonize Florida, was not started until Feb. 20, 1521, when he sailed from Puerto Rico with 200 men. They landed on the west coast of Florida, either near to the mouth of the Caloosahatehec River or on Sanibel Island, where they attempted to establish a settlement. During an attack by hostile Indians, Ponce de Leon was critically wounded, and the settlement was abandoned. The expedition sailed as far as Havana, Cuba, where Ponce de Leon died in July 1521.

Today, Puerto Ricans reserve a special place of honor for him, and many places in Puerto Rico (as well as in Florida) proudly bear his name.

An outstanding explorer and

colonizer, Ponce de Leon was also a skillful administrator whose kindness improved the quality of life for the Indians of Haiti and Puerto Rico.

Diego de Losada

Diego de Losada was a Spanish explorer. Son of Alvaro Perez de Losada and Catalina de Osorio. He traveled to the New World like other Spaniard explorers of his time.

Losada participated in the foundation of *Nueva Segovia de Barquisimeto* (1552)-present day Lara State's capital-at northwest of Venezuela. He was a Mayor of this city. In *El Tocuyo* he was *Regidor* (ruler) and also Mayor of this city. Diego de Losada married Catalina de Rojas.

In 1565, The Governor, Alonso Bernaldez de Quiroz (1561-1566) designated him to put down the rebel Indians in Caracas.

Guaicaipuro, Chief of the Teques, and his allies in the north central valleys attacked the Spanish gold mines and settlements. In January, 1567 Losada traveled to Caracas with an expedition of experienced militars.

On July 25,1567 Losada founded Santiago de Leon de Caracas. Caracas was an Indian word for a plant, similar to yucca, that was common in the area, but the Spaniards thought it was the name of the tribe and the place. Caracas' valley was discovered by a Spanish explorer Francisco Fajardo in 1560. In 1577, Caracas became the capital of Venezuela.

At the beginning of 1569, Losada and his army came to Mariara and





Venezuelan note honoring Diego de Losada.

later came to *Valle del Miedo* (Valley Fear), Guaicaipuro's dominion. Spanish forces beat the Indians in a cruel battle. Losada designated Francisco Infante to capture Guaicaipuro but he was killed during the battle.

Diego de Losada died in 1570. Losada appears in a commemorative issue of the 400th Anniversary in a scene of the founding of Caracas (1567-1967) at the center and Bolivar appears at the right. City arms are shown on the left, an early map (1578) of the city is at the center and the national arms are at the right on the back.

Finally, on the 1,000 pesetas note of 1992 in Spain appears others Spanish explorers. On the face is Hernan Cortez (conqueror of Aztec civilization — Mexico today) at the right. Also, another explorer, called Francisco Pizarro (conqueror of Inca civilization — Peru today), is on a vertical format on the back.

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The Notes of the Rif Revolt

by Peter Symes, I.B.N.S. #4245

The Rif Revolt is one of the more astonishing bids for self-determination by a people bearing the yoke of colonialism. That it failed to achieve its primary aim, is a matter of history that passes over numerous achievements of the leaders of the revolt. However, despite the importance of the Revolt in its own time, this slice of history probably appears in few modern history texts.

The Rif Revolt occurred between 1921 and 1926 in northern Morocco. The colonial power involved in the war was Spain and the people seeking self-determination were the Rifi and Jibala tribes of northern Morocco. Of interest to bank note enthusiasts are two notes that were prepared for issue by the 'State Bank of the Riff'. As it transpires, the notes were not actually issued by the Government of the Rif, but were prepared for issue by Captain C. A. P. Gardiner, a British adventurer and gunrunner.

In the modern history of Morocco, the year 1904 was a watershed. In that year Great Britain and France signed the Anglo-French agreement, which gave France control of Morocco. For many years Great Britain had supported the Moorish Empire of Morocco, but since the death of Sultan Mulai Hassan in 1894, the empire of the Moors had crumbled to the point where it could no longer be recognized as a single entity. Britain had no pretensions to the area formerly controlled by the Moors, but the French had designs on this region between Algeria, which was already under their control, and the Atlantic.

For some time the French had made life difficult for Britain in Egypt. Having just finished the war in South Africa and looking for a period of peace, Britain proposed to France that the British would withdraw their support for the Sultan of Morocco and support France's bid to control Morocco, if France allowed Britain a free hand in Egypt. France agreed and in 1904 the Anglo-French agreement was signed.

For hundreds of years Spain had controlled areas of northern Morocco, most notably the 'Presidios', or enclaves, of Ceuta, Peñon de la Gomera, Alhucemas and Melilla. In recognition of this presence, Clause 8 of the Anglo-French Agreement stipulated that the accord take into account this presence. This clause was as much a recognition by both parties of Spain's lengthy presence in this area, as a desire by Britain to ensure that France had no control over the Straits of Gibraltar.

As a result of Clause 8, France and Spain negotiated a frontier in northern Morocco, giving Spain control of the very north of Morocco, while France controlled the majority of the country. With Spain having established its own zone, Spain then ratified the Anglo-French agreement on 3 October 1904.

French control over Morocco was recognized by Germany in 1911 and in March 1912 Sultan Mulai Hafid signed a treaty in which he recognized a French Protectorate over Morocco. The Spanish Zone was never questioned in these agreements. In effect, France controlled the Spanish Zone, but allowed Spain to administer the Zone under the agreement signed between France and Spain in 1904. Once Protectorate status had been attained in 1912, France and Spain negotiated, and then signed, the Franco-Spanish Treaty of 1912. Under this Treaty France passed full responsibility of the Spanish Zone to Spain.

The Spanish Zone consisted of two major areas, the Rif in the East and the Jibala in the West. Separated from the French protectorate by the Rif Mountains, the northern people had developed, to a certain extent, separately to the people of the south. This was particularly true of the people of the Rif.

There have been a number of ethnological studies into the people of the Rif. This Berber people is a pale-skinned race more akin to the inhabitants of Europe than North Africa. There are many 'Celtic' aspects to their physiognomy, with many individuals having red hair and light eyes. Alongside these inhabitants are dark-skinned people. Speculation as to the mix of blood has suggested that the fair-skinned Berbers are descendants of the Vandals, while the dark-skinned elements are contributed by a people from the west of North Africa, possibly of Semitic origin.

As well as being of a different ethnic mix to their brothers in southern Morocco, there were other differences. Vincent Sheean, an American journalist who visited the Rif during the Revolt, noted that the people of the Rif were much cleaner and more orderly in their personal habits than the people of the South – noting particularly their clothes and their habitats.

When Spain had taken control of their zone in Morocco, they had given limited thought to subduing the people of the interior, who had long since given only nominal acknowledgment to the Sultans of Morocco and who remained largely independent in their own country. The first efforts of the Spanish to enforce their influence outside the Presidios was in 1909, when mining interests required support to de-

velop iron mines. During these efforts to establish its influence, Spain suffered several military defeats, which delayed the successful outcome of the venture. The uneasy relationship between the native population of the Spanish Zone and their Spanish rulers continued in the ensuing years.

During World War I Germany exploited the absence of control in the Spanish Zone by trying to raise the local tribes against the French in the south. While the Germans largely had a free hand in their activities, they had negligible success. After the Great War, Spain slowly began to spread her influence in the territory. An army of approximately 63,000 troops was established in the Spanish Zone, of whom roughly 12,000 were native soldiers. A program of expansion was conducted by building a series of small forts and blockhouses, all supported from garrisons in the Presidios and other coastal towns that had come under Spanish control. These fortifications were regarded with some, but not total, indifference by the local tribes. On occasions the local tribesmen engaged the Spanish, but the disturbances were minor.

The Rif was populated by many tribes who generally acted only in their own interests. There were rarely any agreements binding the tribes, apart from occasional alliances, while inter-tribal disturbances continued at irregular intervals. Without a unified front, the fragmented opposition to the Spanish caused little threat to the colonial power; although the dislike for the Spanish fermented amongst all tribes. One of the larger tribes in the Rif was the Aith Waryagher, located in the east of the Spanish Zone. It was from this tribe that significant

opposition to the Spanish finally arose with dramatic consequences. The man who led the opposition was Si Muhammad n-Si 'Abd al-Krim al-Khatabi or, as he is more commonly known, Abdel Krim (which is actually his father's name).

Abdel Krim was of the son of a qadi (a Judge of Islamic law) of the Aith Waryagher. His father had developed relationships with the mining companies seeking to exploit the iron deposits in the Rif and he had managed to obtain a good education for his son. A better education was obtained for his second son, M'hommad, who became the first Rifi to study at University, undertaking a course in Madrid with the object of becoming a mining engineer.

Abdel Krim learned Spanish and obtained work in the Spanish settlements, holding a number of positions, through promotion, at the Central Office of Native Affairs. After studying law he ultimately became Chief Qadi of the Melilla zone in 1914. He also became editor of the Arabic supplement to El Telegrama del Rif. In 1915 he is reported to have made political announcements in El Telegrama del Rif, in which he proposed that Spain should not seek to extend her influence beyond the Presidios and that he would organize a government of the Rif to be treated on an equal footing with Spain.

For these, and similar claims, he was imprisoned. An attempted escape, in which he broke his leg, did not stop him from eventually being reinstated in the Office of Native Affairs in 1917. At the end of World War I he was alarmed at the repatriation, to French territory, of tribesman who had been critical of the French during the War. Fearing

for his own safety, due to his criticism of the Spanish, he returned to his homelands. Once there, he convinced his father to recall his brother from his studies in Madrid.

During the next two years Abdel Krim and his brother worked amongst the tribes to establish a united front against the Spanish. Following his father's death in 1920, Abdel Krim became the leading figure of his tribe. While Abdel Krim was an able politician, leader and policy maker, it was his brother M'hommad who became the charismatic military leader who established the army of the Rif. Working with the local tribes, and drawing on his experience and knowledge of the Spanish, M'hommad created an armed force that adopted a uniform, drilled regularly and fought to a planned strategy.

The Spanish were well aware of the discontent amongst the native population and the efforts of the Aith Waryagher to organize resistance against them. As well as continuing to assert their authority over the population, the Spanish attempted to divert the feelings aroused in the local tribes against the French in southern Morocco. In 1921 the Spanish, through the representations of a Spaniard named Señor Echevarieta, attempted to take possession of strategic points around Alhucemas Bay by offering to pay Abdel Krim 20 million pesetas. As well as offering money, the Spanish proposed to supply modern armaments for the native population to prosecute a military campaign against the French. This approach was rejected, as Abdel Krim saw the Spanish as the greater enemy of the Rif and he refused to be drawn into a conflict with the French.

After suffering the domination of the Spanish for many years, due to insufficient strength to oppose them, Abdel Krim decided that by May 1921 he had developed enough power to test the Spanish. The chosen point to attack the Spanish was the strategic post of Dar Abara (or Abaran) in Tensamane country. With three hundred warriors, Abdel Krim attacked the fortified Spanish position and after a tough battle the Spanish were defeated. The Spanish lost three to four hundred men, while the Rifians lost only eight or nine men. Although the victory was in itself stunning, the weapons, munitions and supplies captured by Abdel Krim allowed the Rifi to seriously consider widening their campaign.

With the victory at Dar Abara, support immediately came to Abdel Krim from the surrounding tribes, who rallied to the cause. However, Abdel Krim proved to be a masterful tactician and stopped his troops from immediately pursuing further battles. He insisted that they consolidate and defend their position. They achieved this by fortifying a line from Sidi-Driss on the coast to the inland railhead at Tizi-Aza.

General Sylvestre, who was in charge of the Spanish forces in and around Melilla, then asked Abdel Krim to return the bodies of the Spanish soldiers killed at the battle of Dar Abara, but Abdel Krim refused. In order to re-establish his authority and in an effort to weaken the defences of the natives, General Sylvestre attacked Sidi-Bouyane near Anoual. However, the Spanish were once again defeated, losing three hundred and fourteen men, while the local tribes lost only seventeen men.

The Spanish then consolidated their forces at Ygueriben, just south of Anoual. However, Abdel Krim learned that the Spanish were running short of supplies and decided to cut their communications with Tizi Aza, the railhead used to supply the Spanish forces. The successful manoeuver forced General Sylvestre to commit his entire 10,000 men, cavalry and artillery to an immediate attack. Abdel Krim prepared his 1,000 trained warriors in the first line of attack, with reserves of men from the surrounding country in the second line.

The ensuing battle lasted from 21 to 26 July.

By the morning of 26 July the defeat of the Spanish was apparent. Having already lost Ygueriben during the preceding days, General Sylvestre gave the order to evacuate Anoual and all other positions in the region. During the withdrawal to Melilla, the retreating forces panicked and fell into disarray. Throughout the region the Spanish were pursued and cut down by natives who revenged years of repression and domination. Estimates of the Spanish dead from the battles in and around Anoual, and in the flight to the coast, range from fifteen to nineteen thousand men. General Sylvestre was amongst the dead.

In the years following the defeat of the Spanish at Anoual, many Europeans, particularly the French, believed that the victories won by the Rifi were due to their forces being led by skilled Europeans, possibly Germans. When the revolt was over, the same Europeans were surprised to discover that while some Europeans were fighting with the Rifi, the army was led by the Rifi and Jibala tribesmen. Abdel Krim himself was in command at the battles of Dar Abara and Anoual.

After their victories over the Spanish, the Rifi took control of the Jibala with the assistance of the local tribesmen of that area. Apart from Tangier, which was an international enclave, and the Spanish Presidios, Abdel Krim and his warriors held all of the Spanish Zone. The main attempt by Spain to reestablish her position in the areas lost to the Rifi, was in recapturing Sheshuan in the Jibala region. Although initially successful, the Spanish were later driven out, resulting in another terrible and costly defeat of the Spanish army. The Rifi remained dominant against the Spanish and it was not until the tribesmen of the Rif turned their attention to the Frenchcontrolled areas of their allied tribes that fortune turned against them.

Ultimately, France and Spain

aligned their forces and, attacking on two fronts, brought about the defeat of the Rifi. Although the Jibala held out for a while longer, it too finally succumbed to the united forces of the French and Spanish. Following his surrender to the French in May 1926, Abdel Krim and his close associates were exiled to the island of Reunion in the Indian Ocean. In 1947 he was granted permission to live in France but, while en route to France, he was offered asylum in Egypt, which he accepted. After Morocco achieved its independence Muhammad V asked Abdel Krim to return to Morocco. The former leader of the Rif refused to do so while French troops remained in the country. He died in Cairo in February 1963.

The defeat of the Rifi occurred in 1926, but for roughly five years the Rifi controlled the Spanish Zone. During this period Abdel Krim boasted to his numerous visitors that they could walk with safety from the East to the West, as his forces controlled the entire region. It was no empty boast.

Abdel Krim was declared the Emir of the Rif on 1 February 1922, although a declaration of independence had been made in 1921. A government was established, with ministers of state, and Ajdir was declared the capital of the Rif

Republic. Within the Rif the authority of Abdel Krim brought a number of changes which altered aspects of local culture forever. For example, he outlawed blood feuds, which had debilitated the region for years. Justice was now meted out by the authority of the Government. His reforms of the justice system included the implementation of Shari'a law and the abandoning of a peculiarly Berber form of justice that included the use of 'collective oaths'. Tribal allegiances were also reformed, so that allegiances were made directly to the Government.

In an effort to establish a government that would be recognized internationally, Abdel Krim sent emissaries to France and Britain. In 1922 Abdel Krim visited London with several associates. His objective was to enter into talks with Mr. Austen Chamberlain, the British Foreign Secretary, but he was not received by Mr. Chamberlain or by any members of the British Government. While the Rifians found many people sympathetic to their cause in London, the visit did not achieve the diplomatic assistance they were seeking.

In March 1923 Abdel Krim's bother, Si M'hammed, and an associate by the name of Ben Hadj Hitmi visited Paris in an effort to gain French support for their cause. Under assumed names they travelled from Algeria and arrived in Paris. Staying at the Hotel Terminus, near the train station Saint-Lazare, they sought an interview with M. Poincaré, but received no audience. Although they spoke with many people who supported their struggle, the only member of the French Government who gave them an audience was M. Painlevé. Although the audience with M. Painlevé elicited a sympathetic response, the visit to Paris was a failure.

Abdel Krim received many visitors to the Rif, including sympathizers, supporters and journalists. A number of the visitors represented mining interests, who were interested in exploiting the iron deposits of the region. However, the support of these companies for the Rif Republic was tentative, as they found it difficult to commit themselves to the Rifi cause when international law still recognized Spain's rights in the region. Those opposed to the Rifi Republic claimed that Abdel Krim was making a personal fortune from the mining companies. However, after the war Abdel Krim declared that he had taken no personal interest in negotiations for mineral rights and that any negotiations with the mining companies had been undertaken with the various tribes in possession of the land.



This 1-Riffan note (No. R1 in the SCWPM) was prepared for the 'State Bank of the Riff' by Captain Charles Gardiner.



This 5-Riffans note (No. R2 in the SCWPM), along with its lower-denomination counterpart, is one of the few tangible reminders of the Rif Revolt.

Apart from the mining companies, there were two other categories of supporters. There were the French communists and socialists, who opposed their own government's activities in Morocco and private British interests who supported the Rifi for idealistic and commercial reasons. It was the interests of this last group that brought about the preparation of the bank notes that are associated with the Rif.

One of the men closely associated with the Rif Revolt in its early years was Captain Charles Alfred Paroy Gardiner, sometimes known as 'Percy' Gardiner. Little is known of Captain Gardiner before his involvement with Abdel Krim and the Rifi tribesmen. He had been Managing Director of the 'Gardiner Shipbuilding and Engineering Company of Poole', which had failed around 1921 due to insufficient finance. (Prior to its failure, Gardiner had sought a line of credit from the British Government, but the Ministry of Finance had rejected the request.)

Gardiner first comes to notice in the drama of the Rif revolt in March 1923. At that time the Spanish embassy in London wrote to the British authorities, noting that 'the brother of the Riffi rebel chief, Abdel-Krim, has arrived in Paris, where he poses as an Algerian'. Accompanying Abdel Krim's brother M'hommad was 'a Mr. Percy Gardiner'. The communique from the Spanish embassy requested details about Captain Gardiner, whom they suspected was smuggling arms to the Rif.

That Gardiner was involved in smuggling arms to the Rif is certain. His activities, suspected by both the Spanish and British, were confirmed by Abdel Krim after the war. Gardiner was also known by the British authorities to have purchased arms for Greece some time before his focus shifted to northern Morocco. D'uring his involvement with the Rif Revolt, Gardiner was reported to be associated with a 'Herr Hacklander' who was connected to the German

mining company Mannesmann. Hacklander in turn was a known arms dealer, having supplied arms for Serbian forces fighting against the Bulgarians.

How Gardiner made contact with Abdel Krim is unknown, although Gardiner's meeting with Si M'hammed in Paris is his first known contact with the Rifi. Si M'hammed later reported that, while in Paris, Gardiner concluded a deal to supply weapons at a price that Si M'hammed considered rather high. However, Gardiner appears to have established a relationship that was beneficial to both parties, with Gardiner becoming a confidant of Abdel Krim.

In May 1923 Gardiner successfully acquired concessions from the Rifis on behalf of a syndicate, of which he was a co-director, in consideration of a loan to the Rifi. The negotiations appear to have been completed with Si M'hammed during his sojourn in Paris, as the Rifian signatory to the contract for the concessions was the 'Hereditary Vice-President of the Riffian Republic'. According to a later report in the New York Times, for £300,000 Gardiner acquired 'the rights to establish a bank of emission at Adjdir, all rights for the development of the oil, coal, gold, silver and copper resources of the country, besides concessions with regard to telegraph, postal, railroad and seaport exploitations.' He also secured the rights for 'organizing schools, technical colleges, theatres, moving-picture palaces, operas and tramway and omnibus lines'. Considering there were no trams in the Spanish Zone and no opera houses, the concessions ring a little hollow. Perhaps the scope of the concessions indicate the ambitions of the Rifi or, alternatively, the pretensions of Gardiner.

The report in the New York Times was a little short of the mark when it came to the amount of the loan tendered for the concessions, although the description of the concessions appears to be accurately

reported. At the end of May 1923 Captain Gardiner approached the British Embassy in Paris, seeking recognition and support for his acquisition of the concessions. This appeal was followed by an approach to the British Government by Lord Teynham, who was Gardiner's partner and co-director in the syndicate undertaking the enterprise. In a letter to the Government, dated 29 May 1923, Lord Teynham states that the concessions were granted 'in consideration of a loan of £1,000,000'. He also sought support for the enterprise, stating:

'I should be glad to be informed whether His Majesty's Government would be prepared to recognize the validity of these Concessions, or at any rate see its way to according its acquiescence in the agreement being proceeded with.'

The reply to Lord Teynham gave him no succor, stating that he undertakes his enterprise entirely at his own risk. A subsequent appeal by Captain Gardiner to the Foreign Office received the same reply.

In early August 1923 Captain Gardiner was representing himself as 'Agent General for the Riff Government'. By late August he had adopted the title 'Minister Plenipotentiary for the Government of the Riff' and his letterhead used in correspondence read 'The Agent-General for the Government of the Riff (Morocco)'. In his new-found capacity he invited the British Government to establish a 'Diplomatic and Consular service' at Ajdir, the capital of the Rif. Similar invitations were sent to numerous governments of the world, but it would seem that all invitations were treated with the same disregard.

Throughout late 1923 Gardiner continued to press for recognition of the Republic of the Rif, but his efforts were constantly rebuffed. In 1924 the Spanish authorities began a series of complaints to the British, concerning the activities of Gardiner in the Rif, Tangier and Gibraltar. The Spanish claimed that a motor yacht owned by

Captain Gardiner, named 'Sylvia', had smuggled 600 tons of contraband from Gibraltar to the Rif and requested that the British take action against Gardiner. (Gardiner was later reported to have acquired a steam trawler named 'Star of the Orient' in July 1924 and smuggled arms from Liege to the Rif.) The British Government treated the Spanish request with some disdain. Firstly, they questioned how 600 tons of contraband could be shipped on a yacht of 47 tons. (The '600 tons' was later admitted to being a 'typing error' by the Spanish.) Secondly, they questioned how the boat could have travelled to the Rif when Spain claimed to control the seas around northern Morocco. The second point was accompanied by private reports within the British Government which asserted that the Spanish could not control the waters they claimed to police. The British also received intelligence that Spanish soldiers and their wives were selling arms and ammunition to the rebels and that a Spanish millionaire, Don Juan March, was providing arms to the Rifi, but against whom the Spanish authorities took no action. It is apparent that while the British did not support Captain Gardiner or the rebels, they had little time for the Spanish due to that government's inefficiencies.

While Captain Gardiner and Lord Teynham continued to break no British laws (as none of the smuggled arms and munitions left from a British port), there was nothing the British could do to curb their activities. A report on the 'Activities of Captain Gardiner in the Riff', written in December 1924 by the British Foreign Office, describes Gardiner, Lord Teynham and their associates as 'undesirable people' and while they may have caused some embarrassment to the British Government by their 'nefarious operations', they were left to their own devices and to suffer the consequences of their own actions. (These 'consequences' were regarded with some optimism by the British, as the Foreign Office report concludes: 'Obviously it is up to the Spaniards to catch him; but he need not fear much from that quarter.')

By the time the Foreign Office report was written, Gardiner seems to have ceased his activities in northern Morocco. The concessions granted to Gardiner in June 1923 may have been wide and farreaching, but they also had to be paid for. It appears that Gardiner and Lord Teynham could not finance their enterprise, despite efforts in approaching several financiers. By July 1924 the relationship between Gardiner and the Rifi had all but ended. The New York Times reported on 20 July 1924 that the Rifis had lodged papers in French courts suing Gardiner for breach of contract. Gardiner had evidently failed to lodge the first installment of £10,000 with the Rifi and, seeing little other option, they had commenced legal proceedings against the Englishman.

It is probable that the legal proceedings went no further. However, by this time the association between Gardiner and Hacklander had ended, leaving Hacklander owed a sum of money by Abdel Krim, while Gardiner disappeared from the scene. In 1926 Hacklander was identified as a sponsor of another Englishman, Captain Robert Gordon-Canning. Gordon-Canning had supported the Rifi by organizing an advocate group in Britain and by making numerous visits to the Rif. At various stages he attempted to represent Abdel Krim in France, for the purpose of negotiating independence for the Rif. (It is probable that Gordon-Canning was the direct successor to Captain Gardiner, in the role of official representative of the Government of the Rif in Great Britain, following the latter's fall from grace.)

It also appears that, although the agreement with Captain Gardiner failed, the quest to obtain concessions in the Rif continued for many years. One of the strongest competi-

tors for the concessions was Señor Echevarieta, who had previously negotiated with Abdel Krim on behalf of the Spanish Government and who represented Spanish interests in negotiations for the concessions. Other approaches for concessions in the Rif came from French interests. However, it seems that all further attempts to acquire concessions by various parties came to nothing.

In recollecting the various foreigners who assisted him in his endeavors to establish the Rif Republic, Abdel Krim speaks favorably of Gordon-Canning and Hacklander. He believed that each of these gentlemen had no ulterior motives to their support of his cause, although evidence may occasionally suggest otherwise. Of Gardiner, he recalled only that the Englishman offered him the 'world' in consideration for a foreign loan, as well as all manner of modern armaments and munitions for him to prosecute the war. Whether Abdel Krim ever believed that Gardiner was going to deliver the 'world' he offered through the purchase of the concessions is difficult to know, as this subject seems to be passed over in his Mémoires.

In negotiating the concessions from the Rifi in 1923, Gardiner and his syndicate's principal aim was probably to obtain mineral concessions in the Rif. However, they evidently saw an opportunity to raise money in the first instance by establishing a central bank in the Rif. To this end, they prepared a bank note issue. Within the British Public Record Office there is reference, in one of the indices to the Foreign Office political correspondence, to a document titled: '1923 Attempts of Capt CAP Gardiner to place orders in the UK for the manufacture of Riff bank notes: HMG's attitude: evidence of Riff funds at disposal'. Unfortunately the document has not survived. However, this reference suggests that Gardiner approached British security printers with the aim

of securing the production of the bank notes. If he did approach the numerous security printers in Great Britain, his approaches were evidently unsuccessful, as the notes finally produced are certainly not the work of a security printer.

The two uniface bank notes illustrated here are the only two denominations known to have been prepared by Gardiner for issue in the Rif. (These notes are listed in the Standard Catalog of World Paper Money under 'Morocco' as Nos. R1 and R2.) The 'One Riffan' note is printed in pale green on white paper and the 'Five Riffans' is printed in red. The issuing authority of the 'State Bank of the Riff' appears across the top of the notes in English and Arabic. At the bottom of the 1-Riffan note appear the phrases 'Equal to Ten English Pence' and 'Bon pour un Franc d'Or' (equal to one gold franc. These values are increased accordingly for the 5-Riffan note.) It is curious that these values are attested on the note. Perhaps the French value can be explained by an expectation of trade with French Morocco and Algeria. The use of the English phrase is more obscure. There is no reason why the Rifi would be expected to trade with the English, unless it was anticipated that the concessions bought by Gardiner might create trade.

That the notes are printed with English, French and Arabic texts shows a lack of understanding by Gardiner and his syndicate of the people with whom they were dealing. English was a completely foreign language in the Rif and the use of French was marginal. The failure to attest a Spanish equivalent is surprising. It would appear sensible to apprise the prospective users of the notes the value of the 'Riffan' in Spanish currency, for the purpose of exchange, as Spanish currency was then in circulation. The use of Spanish text would also have seemed appropriate, as it was a language that many in the Rif

understood. However, although many Rifians would have been familiar with Spanish and Arabic (which does appear on the notes), most would have spoken only their native Berber dialects.

The design of the bank notes includes a crescent moon and star, which is repeated twice. This device was used on the flag of the 'Republic of the Rif', where the crescent moon and star appeared within a white diamond placed in the centre of a red background. The use of a star similar to the Star of David is unusual in the representation of the Islamic symbol of the crescent moon and star, and it has been reported that the star was drawn by Abdel Krim when he created the flag. The significance of the date '10.10.23', which appears on the bank notes, is unknown. As the date is roughly five months after Gardiner negotiated the concessions, it is likely that this is the date on which he expected to introduce the notes into circulation. It is also possible the date has no relevance to any event.

The bank notes prepared by Gardiner seem never to have been placed into circulation, although they were delivered to the Rif. The use of the bank notes within the Rif is the most difficult aspect of the notes to determine. David Woolman writes in *Rebels in the Rif*:

'The Rifian leader, in discussing the matter with Gordon-Canning, said he had actually received a bundle of paper franc notes from Gardiner during World War I, but that the notes turned out to be nonnegotiable.'

This description of events, with respect to 'World War I' and 'paper franc notes', does not ring true if read literally, but there may be a simple explanation of the comment. There is no evidence of Abdel Krim being active during World War I and, even if he was, certainly not in the capacity of a leader who would deal with a man such as Gardiner. (While his father definitely colluded with the Germans during the War,

Abdel Krim spent the whole period of World War I in Melilla. However, it is probable that Abdel Krim knew of, and possibly participated in, his father's collusion.) If, during the discussion with Gordon-Canning, reference was made to the Rif Revolt as 'the War', it is possible that later writers interpreted 'the War' as World War I rather than the Rif Revolt. The reference to 'paper franc notes' is probably in reference to Gardiner's notes, but the use of 'franc' to identify the notes (rather than 'Riffans') may have been due to the generic use of the word 'franc' to identify currency, rather than specifically identifying currency denominated in 'Francs'. Woolman's comment on the inability of Abdel Krim to negotiate Gardiner's notes indicates that Abdel Krim was either naïve in matters of currency, and what Gardiner intended to do with the notes, or that he was misled by Gardiner.

Rupert Furneaux, in *Abdel Krim*, *Emir of the Rif*, states:

'Gard[i]ner seems to have believed that he was dealing with a very primitive people, for he offered to sell Abdel Krim a machine for printing bank notes, in exchange for all the Rifi's hard currency.'

This comment on the deal between Gardiner and the Rifi probably reflects the proposed arrangement for establishing the 'State Bank of the Rif'. It is not known how Gardiner expected to back his issue of notes by the 'State Bank', but an obvious method would have been for the notes to be exchanged for the Spanish currency then circulating in the Rif. Gardiner would then have been able to back his 'Riffans' by Spanish money, or by Pounds Sterling if he converted the Spanish currency. The backing would then rely on the hard currency being available if the notes were ever presented for payment.

Gardiner may also have expected to exchange notes of his 'State Bank' with some French currency, which was circulating in the Rif. During an early phase of the conflict, the Spanish accused the French of supporting the Rifi, because French currency circulated in the region. In reply to this accusation the French stated:

'It was said that the paper money issued by the Chamber of Commerce in Oran [in western Algeria] was being circulated in abnormal quantities in the Riff and it was deduced that the French authorities were subsidizing the tribes fighting Spain. This is simple calumny. Ever since the installation of the French at Oran, Riffians have been coming to work in large numbers in the western part of Algeria. Saving part of their pay, they return to the Riffian country with Oran paper money.' New York Times 12 August 1923.

Whether Gardiner would have exchanged the Spanish and French currency to use as backing for his own bank notes, or simply taken the hard currency for his own purposes, is debatable. Furneaux's comment (above) suggests that the Rifi saw through his proposal and would not agree to exchange their Spanish and French currency when the notes were delivered.

However, it is to be wondered whether Gardiner had any idea of the amount of currency circulating in the Rif. Vincent Sheean, in analyzing the manner in which the Rifi were financing their struggle, states (in *An American Among the Riffi*):

'The money cannot come from the Rif, because it is not there. There is so little Spanish money in circulation in that scantily populated country that even confiscatory taxes would not supply enough to maintain the Riffi Army and Government.'

There certainly was Spanish money in circulation and Sheean later received a parting gift of 'five hundred pesetas in crisp notes of the Bank of Spain' from the Rifi, as he had earlier been robbed. The Rifi had been given a huge amount of money as a ransom payment for the soldiers captured following the rout at Anoual, but it is understood that most of this money had been spent on weapons to arm the Rifi. Gardiner, as a supplier of some weapons and therefore a probable recipient of some of this money, may have believed that there was more money to exploit than was actually in circulation or available to Abdel Krim.

On the other hand, in his Mémoires, Abdel Krim claims that he had no problem financing the war and balancing his budget. He claims to have raised sufficient revenue through direct taxes of the tribes in the Rif, through penalties imposed on tribes that rose against him, and through penalties collected from common crimes. To these sources of revenue were added the ransom payments for Spanish prisoners. So, perhaps there was sufficient cash available to make Gardiner's project worth while!

The fate of the bundles of 'Riffans' delivered to the Rif is unknown. While some may have been destroyed, a number of notes were rescued by players in the drama. Examples of the paper notes are known to have been taken as souvenirs by Spanish military personnel following the surrender of the Rifi. David Hart, in The Aith Waryagher of the Moroccan Rif, notes that:

'Abd al-Krim had paper money printed, presumably in England, as I have seen a photograph of a "Five Riffan Note" in English and Arabic, amongst the personal archives of Col. Emilio Blanco. It was supposedly worth 50 English pence or 5 gold French francs at the time. However, the extent to which this money was actually in circulation seems questionable, for all my informants spoke solely in terms of duros and pesetas.'

In the end, the bank notes of the 'State Bank of the Riff' cannot be regarded as an issue of currency by the Republic of the Rif, and can only be associated with Abdel Krim and his government through the grant of the ill-fated concessions. A fine memento of the Rif Revolt, the notes are more a legacy of the ambition of Captain Charles Gardiner and his syndicate, than the ill-fated quest for self-determination by the people of the Rif.

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All Change in European Currency — an Addendum

by Henry B. Heath #3123

At the time of submission of the article printed in the *Journal* (41(1), pp 20-34) the biographical data in respect of some personalities portrayed on the now discontinued European bank notes was either incomplete or missing altogether. Thanks to the help of some members the data have now been provided by them or by contacts suggested by them and forms the substance of this addendum.

AUSTRIA

MAYREDER. Rosa (née Rosa Obermayer)(1858-1938)

MAYREDER. Karl(d.1925)

Austrian feminist and critic, philosopher, painter and musician.

Born into a large family Rosa's education was alongside that of a brother with whom she learned Greek and Latin but she also received private lessons in painting and the piano. In 1881 she married Karl Mayreder whom she had known since her youth but unfortunately the marriage was without issue. Being interested in philosophy Rosa Mayreder joined a group of theosophers which met in the home of Marie Lang in Wien-Grinzing. Here she met and befriended the social philosopher Rudolf Steiner(1861-1925) and the composer and musical critic Hugo Wolf(1860-1903) with whom she collaborated in the libretto for his opera Der Corregidor(1896). At this time she not only published her first novel, Aus meiner Jugend, but continued her painting and exhibited her water colours in Vienna and Chicago. Together with Marie Lang, Rosa Mayreder founded the Allgemeinen Österreichischen Frauenverein (General Austrian

Women's Club) becoming its vicepresident. This was the start of a very active period of public speaking and writing dealing with urgent social issues such as prostitution. She wrote in the Neue deutsche Rundschau(New German Review)under the pseudonym Eremo. In 1897 Rosa Mayreder together with other artists founded the Kunstschule für Frauen und Mädchen (School of Art for women and girls). Her first novel, Idole, was published in 1899 and her volume of essays dealing with fundamental feminist issues, Zur Kritik der Weiblichkeit, appeared in 1905. By 1912 and probably as a result of Rosa's commitments, Karl Mayreder suffered severe depression which lasted until his death some thirteen years later. In spite of this, Rosa Mayreder continued in her public works and became the founder and first vice-president of the Austrian branch of the International Women's League for Peace and Liberty (1921). Her second volume of feminist essays, Geschlecht und Kultur, dealt with sexuality, love and marriage. Although she did not entirely agree with the theosophical arguments of Rudolf Steiner she was greatly saddened by the death of her old friend and admirer in 1925. In honor of her 70th birthday another close friend and her publisher, Käthe Braun-Prager, printed a collection of appreciative congratulations written by many famous personalities in Vienna. Her outstanding contributions were recognized when she was elected as an honorary citizen of Vienna(1928)and a year later was given a citizen's diploma for her public support of her Jewish grandfather. Her drama, Anda Renata,

about a female Faust, was published a year before her husband's death in 1935. This was followed by a mystery play, *Diana und Herodias* and *Aschmedais Sonette an den Menschen*. She died in 1938 a very much respected and admired fighter for women's liberty and the feminist cause.

Portrait: P154(1997). Source: Hans-Dieter Mueller, Germany #8603.

FINLAND

In PICK "Modern Issues 1961-2001" this subject is identified as Anders Chydenium. The correct spelling of his name is as given below. My assumption that the vignette on the back of the 1000 Markaa note suggested that Chydenius had naval connections is quite erroneous — sorry.

CHYDENIUS. Anders (1729-1803)

One of the most notable politicians of the eighteenth century in Sweden/Finlandin for his advocacy of democracy, equality and the freedom of trade and industry.

As the son of a Swedish priest, Jacob Chydenius, in Sotkamo, Finland, Anders and his brother Samuel had a lonely upbringing in the remote town of Kuusano where his father was the rector from 1734. Initially educated at home by their father the brothers attended grammar school at the seaport of Oulu on the Gulf of Bothnia, thence via the Turku Academy to Uppsala University. Here Anders graduated in natural sciences, mathematics and philosophy (1753) and entered the priesthood. He acted as preacher at the chapel in Alavetili where he





Face and back of Italy P111 (1985) £5,000. Scene from opera "Norman" on back.

married Beata Magdelena Mellberg (1755). The couple did not have children. During this period Anders Chydenius became an active conservationist, deeply interested in improving local farming practices and animal husbandry. He taught the local farming community by example and acted as their medical practitioner. His writings show an early interest in politics and economics and he gained a reputation as a forceful speaker. In the Stockholm Diet(1746-66)Anders Chydenius successfully fought for the trading and navigational rights of the several ports along the gulf of Bothnia; he broke the monopoly of Stockholm over the trade in tar and opened up this lucrative trade directly to the Finnish ports. He was elected to the Diet(1765)and was soon involved in legislation affecting censorship and the freedom of the press at the same time his writings concentrated on the country's economic malaise. His significant contribution led to his comparison with the Scottish economist Adam Smith (1723-90) who is regarded as the founder of economic theory.

However, as an outspoken and radical champion of free trade, a stern opponent of printed money and an advoctate of stricter control of his country's economic policies Chydenium was dismissed from the Diet by his own party. He reverted to being a parish priest in Kokkola near to his father's parish. Here he found time to raise an orchestra and give local concerts. His father died in 1766 and Anders moved into the old parsonage and lived there from 1770 until his death in 1803. During 1778-79 Chydenius was re-elected to the Diet and being a vigorous supporter of democracy and human rights he effectively supported the rights of hired hands and the working class. At the instigation of King Gustavus III, Chydenius introduced a bill granting limited rights for foreigners to practice their own religion. After a short break Chydenius returned to the Diet again in 1793 and became involved in agricultural development and the settlement of Lapland. Returning home he turned his attention to extending the local parish church the building of which he supervised until his death. Anders Chydenius

was undoubtedly the most notable Finnish politician of the 18th century, a priest, a liberal parliamentarian, an economist and an outspoken champion for human rights. The Chydenius Institute in Kokkola, near his home town, is named in his honor.

Portrait:Finland P117(1986), P122(1991).

Sources: Hans-Dieter Mueller, Germany #8603.

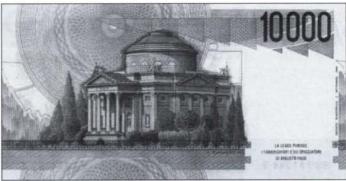
Richard Underwood, UK #3572 Pertti Hyttinen, The Chydenius Institute, The University of Jyväsklä, Finland.

ITALY

As my original article was confined to the last and current issues of notes in each of the European countries affected by the change to the Euro, I omitted two bank notes which had been issued in 1984:85. The following biographies of two very important personalities will make the coverage of Italian notes more complete.

BELLINI. Vincenzo (1801-1835) Italian operatic composer. Born in Catania, Sicily, the son of an





Face and back of Italy P112 (1984) 10,000 lire Volta. Vignette of a mausoleum on back.

organist, Bellini received his musical training under the patronage of a Sicilian nobleman at the Naples Conservatorio. His two early operas(1826-27) were widely acclaimed and were followed by a third, Il pirata(1827) which spread his fame beyond Italy. These operas were followed by two others and then more notably by his two superb lyrical operas, La Sonnambula (1831) and Norma (1832). The success of these operas resulted in tours of Paris and London. His opera I Puritani(1834)written and produced in Paris has a decidedly French character.

Portrait: Italy P111(1985) Bellini against a background of the Coliseum in Rome, looking over his right shoulder. On back, a scene from his opera *Norma*.

VOLTA. Alexandro Giuseppe Anastasio, Conte (1745-1827) Italian physicist who invented the electric battery (Voltaic Cell). Born in Como, he became professor of natural philosophy at the University of Pavia (1774-1804). Here he developed the theory of current electricity and invented the electric battery and numerous other electrical devices including the electrophorus an apparatus for producing an electric charge by induction. He discovered electrolysis by which water could be separated into its constituent elements by an electric current. He was created a count and made senator for Lombardy by Napoléon I(1801). Volta acted as a director of the faculty of philosophy at Padua University (1815-27). His name has been perpetuated in the SI unit of electrical potential-the volt.

Portrait: Italy P112(D. 1984) Bust facing half right, Volta in ceremonial dress with a tall, highly decorated collar. On back, a mausoleum.

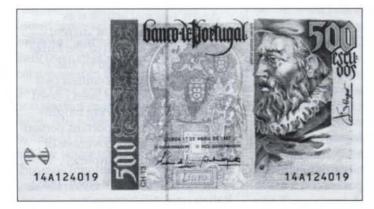
PORTUGAL

Born in Como, he became

BARROS. João de (c.1496-1570)

Portuguese diplomat and historian. João de Barros was governor of Portuguese Guinea (1522-25), court treasurer (1525-28) and until 1567 he was the crown agent for Portuguese India. During this time he wrote several learned works on Portuguese grammar but he is best known for his monumental tome, Décadas da Ásia(1533-1615), covering in considerable detail the era of Portuguese discovery and the colonization of its overseas territories. The first volume of this authorative work contains a very detailed account of Columbus's visit to Portugal in 1493 at the behest of King João. It is interesting that Barros refers to Christóvão Colom as being Genoese rather than as an Italian, a subject which is still debated.

Portrait: Portugal(Quincentenary of Portuguese Discoveries series) P187(1997) Bust in oblong frame at right, in profile facing left,





Face and back of Portugal P187 (1997) quincentenary of Portuguese Discoveries. João de Barros on face. Allegorical vignette on back.

showing de Barros with long hair and a heavy beard wearing a fine ruff, with crowned shield on a globe held by angels at left. On back, an allegory of the Portuguese Discoveries with illustrations from "the Grammar" at left.

Source: Christopher Columbus and the Age of Exploration – an Enclyclopedia (Ed. Silvio A. Bedini). Published by Da Capo Press, New York (1992).

Acknowledgement:

The author wishes to thank the several sources indicated above for their help in establishing biographical data and H-D.M for the suggestion to include those of Bellini and Volta.

Letters to the Editor — Continued from page 5

> Mexico 5 pesos 1925 P.23 Mexico 1 peso 1957-70 P.59 Nepal 500 rupees 1981- P.35 Sri Lanka 2 rupees 1979 P.83 Sri Lanka 10 rupees 1979 P.85 Surinam 5000 gulden 2000 P.62

The top-choice notes come from all regions of the world, and from throughout the 20th Century. Two notes were exceptional, in that they appeared amongst the top three choices on three lists: Costa Rica 5 colones 1968-92 P.239 and Comores 2500 francs 1997 P.13; two of the smallest countries in the world produced a most beautiful notes! Anyone of these masterful pieces of art can be gotten for a few dollars, or euros!

The accompanying figure in color shows my favorite "most beautiful" note (Bhutan 1 ngultrum (1981) P.5), eventhough no one else included it on their list and shared my opinion about it!

With best wishes and regards, Mohamad Hussein, I.B.N.S. #666 Orlando, Florida USA Hasrout@aol.com

Book Review

"Irish Bank Notes — Irish Paper Money 1783 to 2001"

by Martan MacDevitt. 153 pages, soft cover, illustrations in color and black/white. Published by Martan McDevitt, PO Box 99, Kells, Co. Meath, Ireland. £16 plus postage.

More information at www.irishpapermoney.com.

Reviewed by Roger Outing, I.B.N.S. #1434

This First Edition by Martan MacDevitt catalogs the issues of the ten Irish banks of issue between 1783 and 1928; the Central Bank of Ireland issues 1943 to 2001; the Consolidated Banknotes of 1929 to 194; Series A notes (1928 – 1976); Series B bank notes (1976 to 1993); Series C bank notes 1992 to 2001; and the Northern Ireland Bank notes 1929 to 2000, including Bank of Ireland, Belfast Banking Co., National Bank, Northern Bank, Provincial Bank of Ireland and Ulster Bank. All notes are priced according to five grades of condition: Poor, Fine, VF, EF, & Unc. Details of design, dates and signature varieties are described. Reference is made to Replacement and Specimen issues where these are known.

Introductory sections give the historical background to Irish bank note issues and a summary of the Joint Stock Banks of issue. Appendices include a useful summary chart of the A Series issues.

This catalog is the single most comprehensive statement of Irish paper money that is currently available. It is a fascinating read, which successfully unravels the confusing complexities of Irish paper money. The comprehensive range of illustrations, including color illustrations, enables easy identification even by the initiated. Both established and novice collectors will extract value and pleasure from this catalogue. Martan Macdevitt is a total enthusiast for his subject and he has written a catalog for like-minded collectors. Introduction of the euro has stimulated wider interest in past issues of paper money and this catalog is a most timely publication.

The author will acknowledge that the Northern Ireland listings have some details that remain to be confirmed. Similarly the final details of some signature/date variations are also yet to be included. Reports to the author of any additions are especially welcome. This is an impressive first edition and is a catalog that will readily earn its place on your library shelf. This catalog should develop into an excellent standard work. It is hoped that the author is sufficiently encouraged to work on a second edition.

The Counterstamped Notes of Leyte, Philippines

by Jimmie C. Steelman, I.B.N.S. #4751

The island of Leyte, one of the Visayan Group in the Philippines, is located east of Cebu and Bohol across the Camotes Sea. It is separated from Samar to the northeast by the Samar Sea and Mindanao to the south by the Mindanao Sea. Leyte has a rugged mountainous backbone and an area of 2,785 square miles where the primary occupation is farming. The main crops are rice, corn, coconuts, abaca, tobacco, sugarcane and bananas. Fishing is a supplementary activity while sandstone and limestone are quarried in the northwest. The island is divided into two administrative provinces, Leyte and Southern Leyte. Leyte has two chartered cities, Ormoc and Tacloban with Barugo, Baybay, Burauen, Carigara and Maasin being the main population centers.

With the Japanese invasion of the Philippines on December 8, 1941, civil government and military expenditures were greatly increased. The result was an acute shortage of coins and currency that severely impeded the war effort, business and commerce. This currency shortage was exacerbated when a presidential decree advanced three months salary to all governmental employees.

Prior to the war, Manila provided the provincial treasuries, regional banks and commercial businesses with their supplies of currency. When Manila fell into Japanese hands on January 2, 1941, currency shipments to the rest of the country ceased. Provincial treasuries were then forced to assume financial obligations for the national government. In February 1942, Acting Minister of Finance Jose Abad Santos authorized provincial treasurers to pay the pensions, in

cash when possible, of retired Philippine Scouts as well as other persons entitled to government pensions. Presidential Secretary Manuel Roxas then directed provincial governors to assume the obligations for salaries of governmental corporations and establish relief committees to assist evacuees and pay the monthly allowances to families of soldiers on active duty as well as to the dependents of soldiers or civilians killed or disabled in the line of duty or by enemy action. Even though these obligations were to be charged to the national government, the shortage of currency made it impossible for the provincial governments to meet their financial obligations.

The effects of the currency shortage soon began to hamper the war effort. On December 29, 1941 President Quezon issued the first of several telegrams authorizing the creation of emergency currency committees to print currency. Emergency currency committees were established in Iloilo, Bacolod and Cebu City. All three committees were authorized to print limited amounts of fractional currency to offset the shortage of coins. Because the shortage of currency needed to make small change was so severe, each committee made the decision to print both fractional and peso denominations in much larger quantities than authorized by President Quezon. These decisions to increase currency amounts were later commended by President Ouezon.

With the currency shortage so acute, emergency issues rapidly became the primary currency in circulation. In some areas it was the only currency available. Because the currency committees established in

Bacolod, Iloilo and Cebu City were not able to print enough currency to solve these shortages, additional currency committees and boards were established in Misamis Oriental, Misamis Occidental, Negros Oriental, Negros Occidental and Lanao. Regardless of what province emergency currency notes were issued in, they were considered to be valid anywhere in the Philippines.

Because there was no provisional issue printed for Leyte at this time, Leyte received its currency supply from Cebu. The Cebu Currency Committee, as stipulated in the December 29, 1941 telegram, was chaired by Simeon C. Miranda, Acting Manager of the Tacloban branch of the Philippine National Bank. The Provincial Fiscal, Felix I. Reves and Provincial Auditor, Roman T. Del Bando served as members. According to chairman Miranda, only 100,000 pesos in small denominations were initially authorized for printing. Because there was an urgent need for currency in larger denominations, General Sharp, Commander of the Visayan-Mindanao Force, convinced Chairman Miranda that he had been in touch with President Quezon and that the committee had the authority to print larger denominations as necessary to alleviate the currency shortage. The Cebu Currency Committee's issues of 1941 were designed by Julian Jumalon. The plates were engraved at the Imperial Engraving Plant in Cebu City by Augustin Ramirez and printed by Visayan Press. In order to pay salaries and other pressing obligations, the Committee decided to print the peso denominations first. As of March 25, 1942, a total of 1,555,000 pesos had been printed by

the Cebu Currency Committee. Of this amount, Leyte received 1,103,049 pesos in denominations from one to twenty pesos.

Because all emergency currency issues were valid, regardless of issuing authority, throughout the Philippines, the wide variety of issues, sizes, types and colors soon began causing confusion and suspicion. Concerns over this confusion were discussed at a conference, attended by President Quezon, on February 22, 1942 at Bacolod, Negros Occidental. As a result, the Cebu Emergency Currency Board, responsible for printing all currency supplies for the Visayan and Mindanao provinces, was established on March 1, 1942 in Cebu City. The Cebu Emergency Currency Board was chaired by Acting Provincial Auditor Roman T. del Bando and had Acting Provincial Treasurer Pedro Elizalde and Cebu City Treasurer Rosalio D. Macrohon as members. The Cebu Emergency Currency Board authorized the 1942 issue of 5, 10 and 20 Peso denominations.

During the first four months of the war, General Homma never believed that he had sufficient forces to conduct major operations concurrently in more than one area at a time. Homma's primary tactical objective for the invasion forces was the early capture of Manila with the subsequent destruction of enemy troops being secondary. While the main struggle for military control of the Philippines was being waged on the island of Luzon, the southern islands were unlikely to be invaded. It would not be until the Bataan campaign started drawing down that General Homma would have enough forces available to attempt the conquest of the southern Philippine Islands.

The Japanese did not begin planning their operations for the southern Philippines until later in the campaign. The original invasion plans contained only minor references to Mindanao and the Visavas. Japanese planners felt that the southern islands would fall quickly once Manila was captured. Initially, General Homma concentrated his invasion forces on Bataan and Corregidor and showed little interest in the islands south of Luzon. In February 1942, the Japanese Imperial General Headquarters became concerned with the slow progress at Bataan as well as the overall Philippine Campaign. In March 1942, General Homma received reinforcements in Luzon and orders to begin operations in the south concurrently with the protracted operations underway at Corregidor and Bataan.

On April 1, 1942, the first contingent of Japanese reinforcements arrived from Borneo at Lingavan Gulf. These forces consisted of the Headquarters, 35th Brigade and 124th Infantry. Both of these units were from the 18th Division and were under the command of Major General Kawaguchi. These forces, combined with 14th Army supporting and service troops, formed what became known as the Kawaguchi Detachment. Elements of the 5th Division arrived from Malaya on April 5, 1942. These consisted of the 9th Infantry Brigade under the command of Major General Kawamura along with the 41st Infantry. These troops, plus augments by service and support troops, formed the Kawamura Detachment. These two detachments, along with the Miura Detachment already at Davao, constituted the force tasked with conquering the southern Philippines.

The Japanese had fairly accurate knowledge of the terrain and conditions they would face in the Visayas. While exact troop dispositions were not known, they did know which islands were defended along with the approximate size of the defending forces. General Homma was confident that, with the reinforcements from Malaya and Borneo, he would be able to seize the key islands in the Visayas. General Homma's plan was to have the Kawaguchi Detachment take Cebu while the Kawamura Detachment seized Panay. These two forces, combined with the Miura Detachment at Davao, would press on to capture Mindanao. Once this phase was accomplished, General Homma felt that the remaining garrisons would either surrender or could be reduced at leisure. On April 5, 1942, the Kawaguchi Detachment departed Luzon with 4,852 trained and battle hardened troops.

On the afternoon of Aril 9, 1942, the Visayan Force Commander, General Chynoweth first received word of the Japanese approach. The report stated that three Japanese cruisers and eleven transports were steaming towards Cebu. The Japanese formation split into two groups that night with one sailing along the west coast of Cebu and the other along the east coast. Shortly after dawn, the Japanese landed at Cebu City on the east coast and in the vicinity of Toledo on the west coast. Defending Cebu City against the Japanese assault was the Cebu Military Police Regiment under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Howard J. Edmands. Colonel Edmands' forces

consisted of approximately 1,100 men whose mission was to hold long enough for the demolition teams to blowup bridges and block roads leading inland. After engaging Japanese forces that were superior in number, equipment and combat experience, they would fall back into the hills to previously selected positions and conduct guerrilla warfare operations.

The fight for Cebu City lasted only one day. Slowly falling back against the Japanese forces, Lieutenant Colonel Edmands and his troops were able to delay the Japanese advance long enough for the demolition teams to complete their job. By 1700 hours, the Japanese had taken Cebu City and broken off from the fight. Under cover of darkness, Lieutenant Colonel Edmands and his men pulled back to inland ridge positions that could be used to control the approaches from the city to the central mountains. The Toledo area was defended by the Philippine Army 3rd Battalion, 82nd Infantry. This small force fought valiantly against the Japanese invasion but without success. They eventually fell back along the cross-island highway leading toward the mountain town of Cantabaco. After capturing Toledo, the Japanese took control of the cross-island highway leading to Cebu City and had effectively captured the island.

The Cebu Emergency Currency Board remained in operation until Japanese forces occupied Cebu City on April 10, 1942. By that date the Cebu Currency Committee had printed a total of 3,650,000 pesos. Of the finished notes, only 865,000 pesos were officially issued with another 19,5000 pesos being set aside for the Cebu Procincial Government at the last minute. Leyte received a total of 455,000 pesos from this printing. The notes of both the 1941 and 1942 issues circulated on Leyte and were used by the government and military to pay expenses.

The fall of Cebu City meant that Leyte's supply of currency from Cebu was now cut off. On April 13, 1942, Levte established an Emergency Currency Board and received authorization to print one million pesos. This amount was later increased to two million pesos. The Leyte Emergency Currency Board was chaired by Provincial Auditor Alberto Santa Cruz with Provincial Treasurer Ildefonso D. Jimenez and Provincial Fiscal Quintin Paredes as board members. As of May 23, 1942, the Leyte Emergency Currency Board had printed a total of 627,861.60 pesos. On May 24, 1942, Japanese forces arrived in Tacloban where the official surrender took place two days later. By that time, most of the U.S. and Philippine troops had dispersed into the hills. There were only 11 American officers, 40 Philippine officers and 20 Philippine enlisted men that actually surrendered on Levte. The rest had vanished into the hills.

By June 9, 1942 all U.S. and Philippine forces, with the exception of some small detachments in isolated areas, had surrendered to the Japanese. General Homma's struggle to control the Philippines had taken six months, four months longer than the Japanese had planned. Each day the taking of the Philippines was delayed meant a loss of face for the Japanese. General Homma paid the price for this loss of face shortly after the campaign ended when he was relieved of command by the Imperial General Headquarters and sent back to Tokyo where he spent the remainder of the war as a reserve officer.

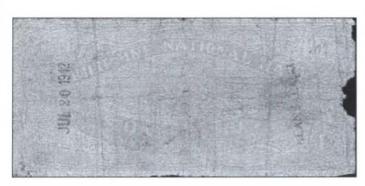
The Japanese seemingly had no knowledge of the emergency currency that had been circulating in the Visayas and Mindanao. Shortly after they occupied Cebu and Panay, the Japanese Military Administration attempted to stop the use of these emergency currencies by issuing a series of proclamations demonetizing the notes and declaring their circulation illegal. Further, any

person caught circulating or accepting the notes for any purpose was to be severely punished in accordance with Japanese Military Law. Because currency was in such short supply, emergency notes were the only currency circulating in many areas. Realizing the hardship this currency shortage was causing the local population, the Japanese seemed to have relaxed enforcement of these decrees and apparently, for a limited amount of time, actually allowed emergency currencies to circulate in certain areas. During the month of July 1942, emergency currency was counterstamped or countersigned for use by various Leyte municipalities. Many of the counterstamps were applied using circular receiving stamps of various municipal treasurers, money order bureaus or municipal officials. Additionally, the notes were usually signed or initialed in red ink by government officials. Notes can also be found with only a signature and no counterstamp. Eventually, procedures were set up to allow the redemption of emergency notes into Japanese occupation currency.

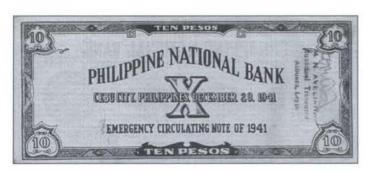
Leyte counterstamps seem to have been applied primarily to the peso notes of Cebu (P-S215 thru P-S224) but can also be found on notes from other provinces including Leyte, Mindanao, Negros Occidental and Iloilo. Notes are often found with barely legible or partial counterstamps or signatures that make identifying the municipality extremely difficult. Occasionally, notes can be found with counterstampings from two different municipalities, two different counterstampings from the same municipality or even two different provinces. Numerous locations, combinations and varieties offer a wide collecting area. The following is a listing of the counterstamps, signatures, variations and some of the combinations that I have been able to identify:



ABUYOG — Type 1: Handwritten "R. Callantes / Mun. Treas./ Abuyog " plus date.



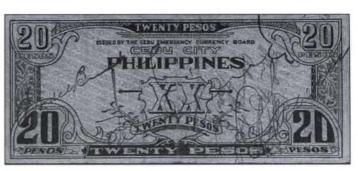
ALANGALANG — Type 1: 30mm stamp "ALANGALANG" with initials above. Date stamped above.



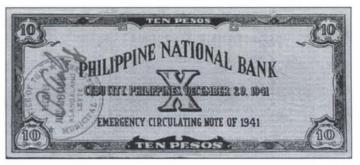
ALBUERA — 32mm stamp "M. N. AVELIANA / Municipal Treasurer / Albuera, Leyte" under Aveliana's signature.



BARUGO — 50mm stamp "MUN. OF BARUGO / LEYTE PROV. / PRESENTED / _____ / MUN. TREAS."



ABUYOG — Type 2: Handwritten "Ricardo Callantes / Mun. Treasurer / Abuyog Leyte" plus date.



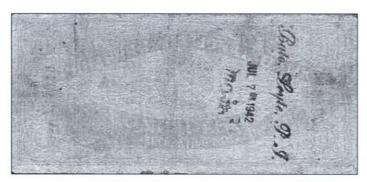
ALANGALANG — Type 2: 38mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RECEIVED / DATE/ ALANGALANG LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREA-SURER " signed by Pedro Avila.



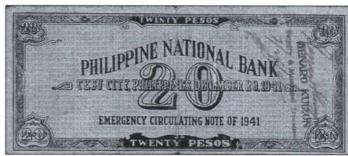
BABATNGON — 38mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE MUNICIPAL TREASURER / RECEIVED / DATE/ Babatngon, Leyte" with an unidentified signature.



BATO — Type 1: 45mm stamp "PROVINCE OF LEYTE / BATO / Office of the Treasurer / RECEIVED" with date inside the word "RECEIVED"



BATO — Type 2: 50mm stamp "Bato, Leyte, P.I." with date stamp and stamped signature "Morito" of the Municipal Treasurer. Each stamp was applied individually.



BATO — Type 3: 51mm stamp "GENARO KUIZON / Deputy & Municipal Treasurer" with a date stamp below and Kuizon's signature above.

The counterstamped notes of Bato may have one or two of the above types.

I have not found any with a combination of all three types.



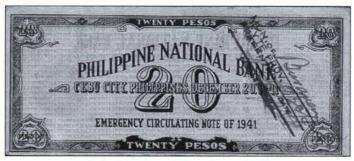
BILIRAN — Type 2: 55mm stamp "Municipal Treasurer of Biliran, Leyte" with signature of the Acting Municipal Treasurer J.A. Rojas.



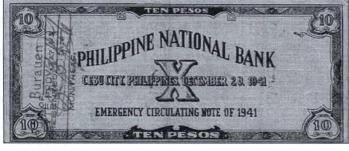
BILIRAN — Type 1: 37mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE TREASURER / RECEIVED /Biliran, Leyte, P.I."



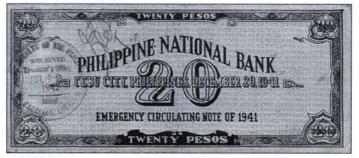
BILIRAN Type 1 & 2



BURAUEN — Type 1: 58mm stamp (Burauen is handwritten) "MUN. OF <u>BURAUEN</u> / LEYTE PROV. / PRESENTED / _____ / MUN. TREAS." With an unidentified signature on the blank line.



BURAUEN — Type 2: 58mm stamp (Burauen applies with a separate stamp) "MUN. OF <u>BURAUEN</u> / LEYTE PROV. / PRESENTED / _____ / MUN. TREAS." With an unidentified signature on the blank line.



CABALIAN — 37mm circular stamp "COMMONWEALTH OF THE PHILIPPINES / RECEIVED / Treasurer's Office / DATE / Initial / CABALIAN, LEYTE" with the Municipal Treasurer's signature. Cabalian notes may have the stamp and signature, just the stamp or just the signature.



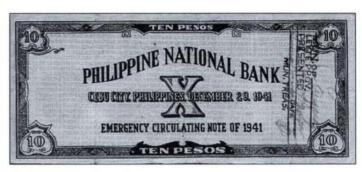
CAIBIRAN — Type 1: 24mm circular stamp "MUNICIPAL TREA-SURER / RECEIVED/ Caibiran, Leyte" with date stamped in the center.



CAIBIRAN — Type 2: 53mm stamp "A. P. AMOLAR / Municipal Treasurer / CAIBIRAN LEYTE" with Amolar's signature above.



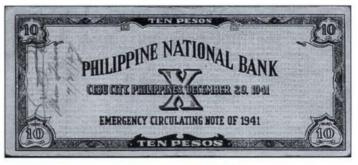
CALUBIAN — 37mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RECEIVED / CALUBIAN, / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with signature of Hilarion Herrera. Notes may also have just the counterstamp or just the signature.



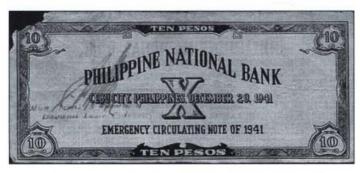
CARIGARA — Type 1: 50 mm stamp (Carigara is handwritten)
"MUN. OF Carigara/LEYTE PROV./PRESENTED/_____DATE/
MUN. TREAS." With signature of Lino Pore.



CARIGARA — Type 2: 48mm stamp "LINO PORE / Dep. Prov. & Mun. Treasurer" with signature of Lino Pore with handwritten title and date underneath.



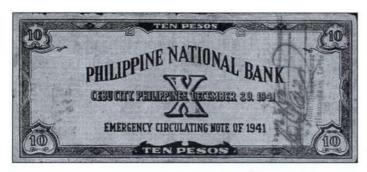
CARIGARA — Type 3: Signature of Municipal Treasurer Lino Pore with handwritten title and date underneath.



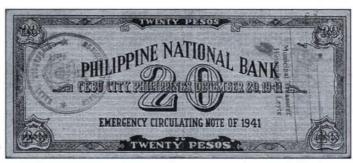
DAGAMI — 51mm stamp "Mun Treas & Deputy of / Dagami Leyte P.I." with signature of Municipal Treasurer Gavino Berino above.



DULAG — 60mm stamp "BALBINO LAGUNZAD / Municipal Treasurer / Dulag Leyte" with Lagunzad's signature above.



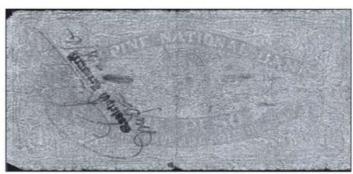
HINUNANGAN — Type 1: 65mm stamp "Paid by me P_____/Date / signature / Muuicipal Treasurer / Hinungayan Leyte" (note misspelling of the word Municipal).



HINUNANGAN — Type 2: 41mm circular stamp MUNICIPAL TREASURER / HINUNANGAN, LEYTE" with Philippine Seal in center. I have only seen this stamp combined with Type 1.



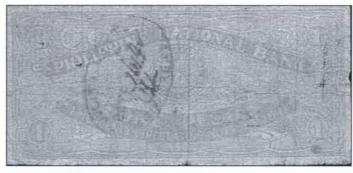
HINUNDAYAN — 31mm circular stamp "HINUNDAYAN, LEYTE / M.O.B. / PHILIPPINES" with a date stamp in the center. Some notes also have the Municipal Treasurer's signature with the counterstamp.



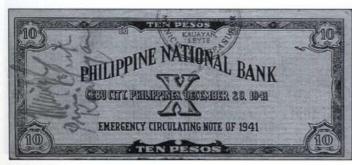
INOPACAN — 36mm stamp "Municipal Treasurer" with Pastor Palacio's signature.



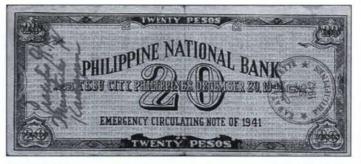
JARO — 45mm stamp "P. M. REYNA / Deputy Provincial and / Municipal Treasurer / Jaro, Leyte" usually with a date stamp below.



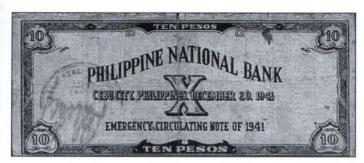
JULITA — 45mm oval stamp "JULITA, LEYTE / DATE / MUN. TREAS." with a handwritten date in the center.



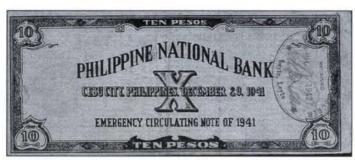
KAUAYAN — 38mm circular stamp "RECEIVED / KAUAYAN, / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with a date stamp in the center. All of the examples I have seen have been partial stamps at the top of the note omitting the top portion of the stamp.



KAWAYAN — 30mm circular stamp "KAWAYAN, LEYTE / PHILIP-PINES" with date stamp in the center. Many notes also have the signature of Praxidio Polo, Municipal Treasurer, Kawayan. Notes can also be found with only Praxidio's signature and title without any counterstamp.



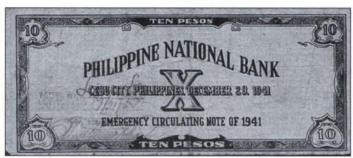
LA PAZ — 38mm circular stamp. I can only make out the following "LA PAZ / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with a date stamp in the center.



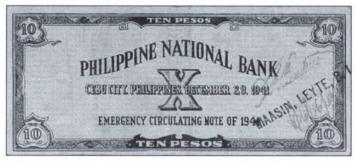
LEYTE — 42mm oval stamp "OFFICE OF THE TREASURER / RECEIVED / LEYTE, LEYTE" with a date stamp and signature in the center.



LILOAN — Type 1: 38mm round stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RE-CEIVED / LILOAN, / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with a date stamp in the center.



LILOAN — Type 2: 48mm stamp "MUN. OF Liloan Leyte / LEYTE PROV. / PRESENTED ______ / MUN. TREAS." This note has a handwritten location and date with a signature below.



MAASIN — 50mm stamp "MAASIN, LEYTE, P.I." with an unidentified stamped signature above. Maasin notes can be also be found with only the signature stamp or Maasin stamp.



MACROHON — 56mm stamp "MUN. TREAS. MACROHON, LEYTE" with a dotted line and signature above, date stamp below.



MARIPIPI — 43mm stamp "A.A. PENAS / MARIPIPI, LEYTE" with signature above and date stamp below.

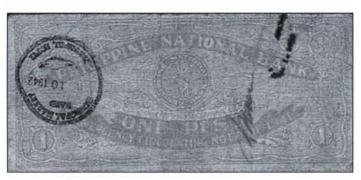


MATALOM — Type 1: 38mm round stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RECEIVED / MATALOM / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TRASURER" with date stamp in the center.

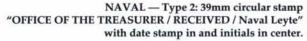


MATALOM — Type 2: Handwritten with signature of Benito Paez, Municipal Treasurer.

Matalom notes can be found with either Type 1 or Type 2 as well as both.



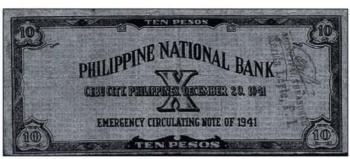
MUNICIPAL MARKET — 34mm irregularly shaped stamp "MU-NICIPAL MARKET / PAID / ????" with date stamp in center and unidentified signature. These are always difficult to read but usually easy to identify by their irregular shape or signature.



Naval notes can be found with a combination of both types.



ORMOC — Type 1: 59mm stamp "RAFAEL D. OMEGA / Deputy Proiv. & Mpal. Treasurer / ORMOC / Leyte." With Omega's signature above. The ORMOC stamp was applied separately. This type of counterstamp was also applied to pieces of paper and then affixed to the bank note.

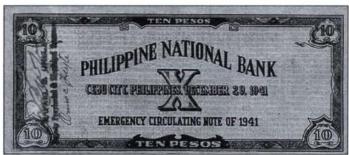


MERIDA — 44mm stamp "MUNICIPAL TRASURER / Merida Leyte, P. I." With signature above.

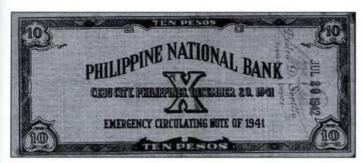


NAVAL — Type 1: 38mm stamp "R.D. COPUACO / MUN. MAYOR / NAVAL, LEYTE"



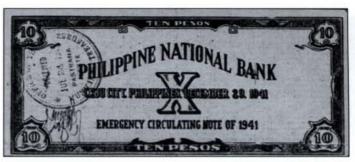


ORMOC — Type 2: 56mm stamp "RAFAEL D. OMEGA / Deputy Provincial & Municipal Treasurer" with Omega's signature above and a handwritten "Ormoc Leyte" below.

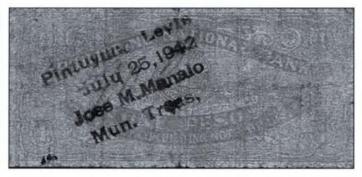


PALO — 42mm stamp "Pedro D. Sevilla / Treasurer & Deputy."

With signature and date stamp above.



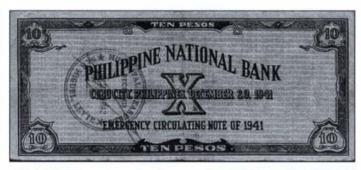
PASTRANA — 42mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RECEIVED / PASTRANA / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with date stamp in center. This note courtesy of C.M. "Niel" Nielsen.



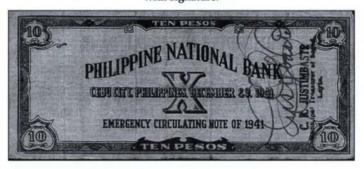
PINTUYAN — 57mm stamp "Pintuyan, Leyte / July 25, 1942 / Jose M. Manalo / Mun. Treas." With signature over the counterstamp. I have seen several different dates but all were in July, 1942.



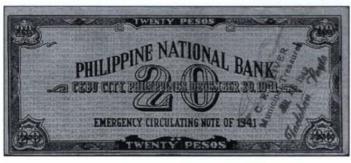
SAN ISIDRO — 38mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE MUN. TREASURER / -o- / RECEIVED / SAN ISIDRO, LEYTE" with signature.



SAN MIGUEL — 42mm circular stamp "MUNICIPAL TREASURER / RECEIVED / SAN MIGUEL, LEYTE" with date stamp and signature in center.



 $SOGOD - 48mm \ stamp \ "C.\ R.\ JUSTIMBASTE /\ Municipal\ Treasurer of\ Sogod, /\ Leyte"\ with\ Justimbaste's\ signature\ above.$



TACLOBAN — Type 1: 42mm stamp "C. R. OLIVER / Municipal Treasurer / Tacloban, Leyte" with Oliver's signature above and date stamp between the 2nd and 3nd lines.



TACLOBAN — Type 2: 50mm stamp "C. R. OLIVER / Deputy & Municipal Treasurer / Tacloban, Leyte" with Oliver's signature above and date stamp between the 2nd and 3rd lines.



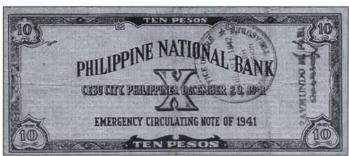
TANAUAN — 31mm circular stamp "TANAUAN, LEYTE / M.O.B. / PHILIPPINES" with date in center. A second 33mm stamp underneath "Municipal Treasurer" with signature of Cirilio Morante above.



 $TOLOSA-31mm\ circular\ stamp\ "TOLOSA,\ LEYTE\ /\ M.O.B.\ /\ PHILIPPINES"\ with\ date\ in\ center\ and\ signature\ across\ stamp.$



VILLABA — 42mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE / RECEIVED / VILLABA, / LEYTE / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with date in center.



RAYMUNDO M. FABI — 42mm circular stamp "OFFICE OF THE / CASH DIVISION / MUNICIPAL TREASURER" with date in center. Second 45mm stamp below "RAYMUNDO M. FABI / Cashier" with initials or signature. I have seen two different stamps with different fonts and the same text used.

MISCELLANEOUS COUNTERSTAMPS



PROCESSO SAAVEDRA — Unknown location with signature of Processo Saavedra.



Leyte Provincial Auditor Alberto Santa Cruz





PAID NOTES — This not was marked "P.N.B. / PAID / LEYTE AGENCY" on the face. The bac was counterstamped by Raymundo Fabi, Municipal Treasurer on July 23, 1942 and then countersigned by the Deputy Provincial Treasurer in Tacloban on what appears to be August 6, 1948.

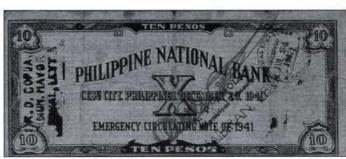
MULTIPLE COUNTERSTAMPS

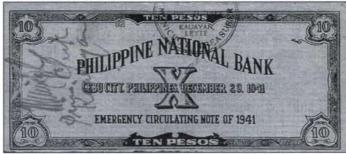
Occasionally, notes can be found with more than one location counterstamped on them. Here are several examples:

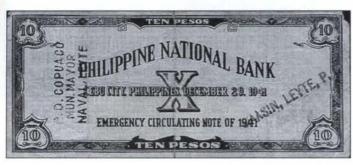
Biliran Type 2 & Calubian



Caibiran Types 1 and 2 & Naval Kawayan signature only & Kauayan







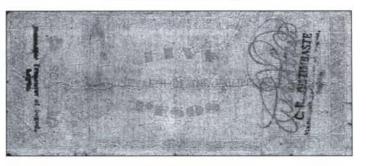
Maasin & Naval Type 1



Matalom Type 1 & Bato Type 3



INTER-ISLAND COUNTERSTAMP — This Cebu note was conterstamped by the Municipal Treasurers of Surigao, Surigao and Sogod, Leyte and also countersigned by the Provincial Treasurer of Surigao.



Negros Occidental Five Peso note with Sogod, Leyte counterstamp.

Sources

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Bank Notes of Israel — Part II

by Farid Salem, I.B.N.S. #6656

continued from I.B.N.S. Journal Number 41, Volume 4

SIXTH SERIES (NEW SHEQEL SERIES)

On September 4, 1985 the new sheqel equal to 1,000 old sheqalim, became the currency of Israel. The dropping of three zeros from the old sheqel denominations was intended to simplify money calculations and to

facilitate cash payments and financial recordings. The name "sheqel" was retained so as not to deviate from the original intention of the legislator as embodied in the Sheqel Currency Law, 5729-1969 and to preserve the ancient name of Israel coinage.





ONE NEW SHEOEL

Size: 138 x 76 mm.

Dominant color: Green.

Face: Portrait of Maimonides (Rambam); a passage from his manuscript of the "Mishneh Tora" (code of Jewish law); the denomination "One NEW Sheqel" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: Stylized view of Tiberias where Maimonides is buried; an ancient andlebrum; the denomination "1 New Sheqel" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of Maimonides.

Security Thread: In the middle of the note.

Look through: A triangle on the face merges with a triangle on the back to form a Star of David when held against the light.

Sign for the blind: A triangle in the lower right-hand corner of the face

Color of numbering: black.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Moshe Mandlebaum.

Design: Zvi Narkiss assisted by Arie Glazer.

Year: 1986.

Date of issue: May 8, 1986.





FIVE NEW SHEQALIM Size: 138 x 76 mm. Dominant color: Blue.

Face: Portrait of Levi Eshkol; a panorama of united Jerusalem; the denomination "Five New Sheqalim" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: Pipe carrying water, symbolizing Eshkol s enterprise, against background of meadow and barren land; the denomination "5 New Sheqalim" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of Levi Eshkol.

Security Thread: In the middle of the note.

Look through: A geometric pattern on the face merges with a pattern on the back to form a Star of David when held against the light.

Sign for the blind: A Square in the upper

right-hand corner of the face

Color of numbering: black.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Moshe Mandlebaum and the Chairman of the Advisory Council Avraham Shapira.

Design: Jacob Zim.

Year: 1985.

Date of issue: September 4, 1985.





Ten NEW SHEQALIM

Size: 138 x 76 mm.

Dominant color: Orange.

Face: Portrait of Golda Meir; a stylized tree with intertwining branches against of a background of seven-branched candelabrum and the words "Let my people go" in microprint; the denomination "Ten

New Sheqalim" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: Picture of Golda Meir among a gathering of Russian Jews in front of the Moscow synagogue; the words "let my people go" in the background in large and tiny letters; the denomination "10 New Sheqalim" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of Golda Meir.

Security Thread: In the middle of the note.

Look through: A four-branched candelabrum on the face merges with three-branched andelabrum on the back to form a seven-branched candelabrum when held against the light.

Sign for the blind: A rhombus in the upper

right-hand corner of the face

Color of numbering: black.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Moshe Mandlebaum and the Chairman of the Advisory Council Avraham Shapira.

Design: Asher Kalderon.

Year: 1985.

Date of issue: September 4, 1985.

Note: The series dated 5747-1987, which was issued in October 1987, carries the signature of the Governor Michael Bruno and Chairman of the Advisory committee Council Shlomo Lorincz.





TWENTY NEW SHEQALIM

Size: 138 x 76 mm.

Dominant color: Dark-gray.

Face: Portrait of Moshe Sharett, below, in a line legible under a magnifying glass, the titles of his seven books; the ceremony of the unfurling of the Israeli flag by Sharett at the U. N. building in 1949; the denomination "Twenty

New Sheqalim" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: Original building of the Herzila high school where Sharett studied; a background of little Tel-Aviv; the denomination "20 New Sheqalim" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of Moshe Sharett..

Security Thread: In the middle of the note.

Look through: Six small triangles on the face merge with two rhombi and two triangles on the back to form a Star of David when held against the light.

Sign for the blind: A titled square within a square in the upper right-hand corner of the face.

Color of numbering: black.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Michael Bruno and the Chairman of the Advisory Council Shlomo Lorincz.

Design: Zvi Narkiss, assisted by Arie Glazer.

Year: 1987.

Date of issue: April 12, 1988.

Note: The paper contains colored fibers.





FIFTY NEW SHEOALIM

Size: 138 x 76 mm.

Dominant color: Purple.

Face: Portrait of S. Y. Agnon; the denomination "Fifty New Sheqalim" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: A skyline of Jerusalem and a Jewish townlet in Eastern Europe; titles of 18 books by Agnon in microprint; the denomination "50 New

Sheqalim" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of S. Y. Agnon.

Security Thread: In the middle of the note.

Look through: A three-sided pattern on the face merges with another on the back to form the Star of David when held against the light..

Sign for the blind: A Pentagon in the upper right-hand corner of the face.

Color of numbering: black.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Moshe Mandelbaum and the Chairman of the Advisory Council Avraham Shapira.

Design: Eliezer Weishoff.

Year: 1985.

Date of issue: September 4, 1985.

Note: The series dated 5748-1988. which was issued in May 1989, carries the signature of the Governor Michael Bruno and Chairman of the Advisory Council Shlomo Lorincz.





ONE HUNDRED NEW SHEQALIM

Size: 138 x 76 mm.

Dominant color: Brown.

Face: Portrait of Itzahak Ben-zvi; to the right, in nine lines legible under magnifying glass, the titles of his nine books; a background depicting a group of people representing different ethnic communities in Israel; the denomination "One Hundred New Sheqalim" and the "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew.

Back: A view of Pekiin village, researched by Ben-Zvi, including the synagogue, a carob tree and a cave; an ancient stone candelabrum; the denomination "100 New Sheqalim" and "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew, Arabic and English.

Watermark: Portrait of Itzhak Ben-Zvi.

Security Thread: In the center of the note.

Look through: A triangle on the face merges with a triangle on the back to form the Star of David when held against the light.

Sign for the blind: A half circle in the upper right-hand cornor of the face.

Color of numbering: black on the lower part of the note and green on the upper part.

Signatures: Governor of the Bank Moshe Mandelbaum.

Design: Zvi Narkiss.

Year: 1986.

Date of issue: August 19, 1986.

Note: The series dated 5749-1989. which was issued in January 1990, carries the signature of the Governor Michael Bruno and Chairman of the Advisory Council Shlomo Lorincz. The watermark is different, and the words "Bank of Israel" in Hebrew are imprinted on the security thread. The paper contains colored fibers.



Golda Meir, as Minister Plenipotentiary to the USSR, and the Jewish congregation in front of the Moscow synagogue.



November 5, 1949: Israel became member of the UN — Moshe Sharett unfurls the flag.

SEVENTH SERIES (SECOND SERIES OF THE NEW SHEQEL)

On January 3, 1999, the second series of the NEW Sheqel was put into circulation with the issuance of the new NIS 20 and the new NIS 100 bank notes. On October 31, 1999, The NIS 50 and NIS 200 Bank notes were issued. A NIS 500 bank note with the portrait of Yitzhak Rabin will be added in the future.

The second series includes improved security features

against forgery. The new bank notes share similar design elements and all have uniform security features.

The personages on the second series of NIS notes are those who featured on the same denominations of the first NIS series.

The notes are designed vertically, and all denominations are uniform in size: 138 mm x 71 mm.

The second series was designed by Naomi and Meir Eshel

20 New SHEQALIM Size: 138 X 71 mm. Dominant Color: Green. Face

Design: Portrait of Moshe Sharett; picture of the ceremony of the unfurling of the Isareli flag at the UN building on May 12, 1949; text from the speech given by Sharett on the occasion.

Latent Image: A triangle in the right-hand corner.

Sign for the blind: Two vertical lines in intaglio ink at the top left of the note.

Denomination: In the top right-hand corner in numbers, in Hebrew and with words "Bank of Israel"; and the bottom left-hand corner in metallic gold.

Watermark: Portrait of Sharett and a small circle beneath it enclosed the initial of his surname (in Hebrew).

Security thread: Threaded through the paper below the middle of the note. Signatures: Governor of the bank of Israel, Professor Jacob Frenckel; and the Chairman of the Advisory committee Council, Rabbi Shlomo Lorincz.

Back

Design: Picture of the Jewish Brigade volunteers during WW II and of a Pre-state look-out tower, text from Sharett s radio address after his return from a visit to the Jewish Brigade in Italy.

Microtext: To the right of the main text with titles of seven books written by

Security features Eshel.



Moshe Sharett.

Denomination: In numbers with the words "New Sheqalim" and "bank of Israel"; in iridescent ink in Arabic Characters.

Optical Variable Ink: A triangle composed of small squares, with the apex pointing to the right.

See-through: a small triangle printed on either side of the note; the two triangles form a precise Star of David.

Serial numbers: Once in olive-green and once in black which reflects UV light.

Designers: Naomi and Meir Eshel. Date of Issue: January 3, 1999.

> 50 New SHEQALIM Size: 138 X 71 mm. Dominant Color: Violet. Face

Design: Portrait of Shamul Yosef agnon; picture of agnons study and personal library. Text from the acceptance address given by Agnon when he was awarded the Noble Prize for Literature in 1966.

Latent Image: A triangle in the right-hand corner.

Sign for the blind: Three vertical lines in intaglio ink at the top left of the note.

Denomination: In the top right-hand corner in numbers, in Hebrew and with words "Bank of Israel"; and the bottom left-hand corner in metallic gold.

Watermark: Portrait of Agnon and a small circle beneath it enclosed the initial of his surname (in Hebrew).

Security thread: Threaded through the paper below the middle of the note.

Signatures: Governor of the bank of Israel, Professor Jacob Frenckel; and the Chairman of the Adisory committee Council, Rabbi Shlomo Lorincz.

Year of printing: 1998- beneath the portrait, in the colored strip.

Back

Design: Picture of Agnon's writing stand with his pen and reading glasses. Text lists the titles as sixteen of Agnon's books. Microtext: To the right of the main text with titles of seventeen of Agnon's books. Denomination: In numbers with the words "New Sheqalim" and "bank of Israel;" in iridescent ink in Arabic characters. Optical Variable Ink: A triangle composed of small squares, with the apex pointing to the right.

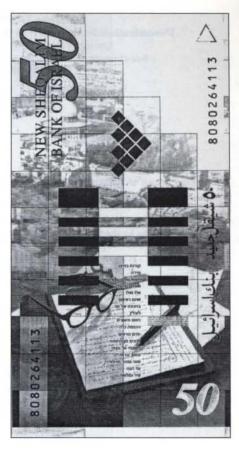
See-through: A small triangle printed on either side of the note; the two triangles form a precise Star of David.

Serial numbers: Once in blue and once in black which reflects UV light.

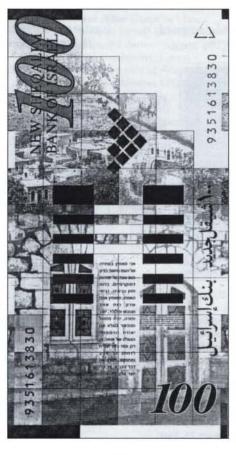
Designers: Naomi and Meir Eshel.

Date of Issue: October 31, 1999.









100 New SHEQALIM Size: 138 X 71 mm. Dominant Color: Brown. Face

Design: Portrait of Itzhak Ben-Zvi; picture of the interior of the wooden structure which served as the president's residence; text from the speech given by Ben-Zvi at the first assembly of the Yemenite community held at his residence in 1953.

Latent Image: A triangle in the right-hand corner.

Sign for the blind: One horizontal line in intaglio ink at the top left of the note.

Denomination: In the top right-hand corner in numbers, in Hebrew and with words "Bank of Israel;" and the bottom left-hand corner in metallic gold.

Watermark: Portrait of Ben-Zvi and a small circle beneath it enclosed the initial of his surname (in Hebrew).

Security thread: Threaded through the paper below the middle of the note.

Signatures: Governor of the bank of Israel, Professor Jacob Frenckel; and the Chairman of the Adisory committee Council, Rabbi Shlomo Lorincz.

Year of printing: 1998- beneath the portrait, in the colored strip.

Back

Design: Picture of synagogue in the Galilee village of Pekin, and a view of Pekin; text from Ben-Zvi speech at the inauguration for his second term.

Microtext: To the right of the main text with titles of nine books written by Ben-Zvi.

Denomination: In numbers with the words "New Sheqalim" and "bank of Israel"; in iridescent ink in Arabic Characters
Optical Variable Ink: A triangle composed of small squares, with the apex pointing to the right.

See-through: A small triangle printed on either side of the note; the two triangles form a precise Star of David.

Serial numbers: Once in orange and once in black which reflects UV light.

Designers: Naomi and Meir Eshel. Date of Issue: January 3, 1999.

> 200 New SHEQALIM Size: 138 X 71 mm. Dominant Color: Red. Face

Design: Portrait of Zalman shazar; picture of pupils in an elementary school class. Text from Shazars address to the Knesset on July 13, 1949, after the Compulsory education Law was passed.

Latent Image: A triangle in the right-hand corner.

Sign for the blind: Two horizontal lines in intaglio ink at the top left of the note.

Denomination: In the top right-hand corner in numbers, in Hebrew and with words "Bank of Israel"; and the bottom left-hand corner in metallic gold.

Watermark: Portrait of Shazar and a small circle beneath it enclosed the initial of his surname (in Hebrew).

Security thread: Threaded through the paper below the middle of the note.

Signatures: Governor of the bank of Israel, Professor Jacob Frenckel; and the Chairman of the Adisory committee Council, Rabbi Shlomo Lorincz.

Year of printing: 1999- beneath the portrait, in the colored strip.

Back

Design: Picture of a Typical alley in the town of Safed-a spiritual center of Kabbalists. Text taken from Shazar s essay, Tzofayih Tzefat (Thy Watchers, O Safed), first published in 1950..

Microtext: To the right of the main text with titles of fifteen of Zalman Shazar s works.

Denomination: In numbers with the words "New Sheqalim" and "bank of Israel"; in iridescent ink in Arabic Characters

Optical Variable Ink: A triangle composed of small squares, with the apex pointing to the right.

See-through: A small triangle printed on either side of the note; the two triangles form a precise Star of David.

Serial numbers: Once in violet and once in black which reflects UV light.

Designers: Naomi and Meir Eshel. Date of Issue: October 31, 1999

Fractional Currency

In the first years of the state there was shortage of coins, and so the Finance Ministry decided to issue

nce Ministry decided to issue



ONE HUNDRED MILS Size: 80 x 48 mm. Dominant color: Green.

Face: Mosaic from the floor of an ancient synagogue at beit-Alpha; the denomination "One Hundred Mils" and "Israel" in Hebrew and Arabic.

Back: Mosaic from the floor of an ancient synagogue at Beit-alpha; the denomination "100" .

Color of numbering: Red.
Signature: Minister of Finance E. Kaplan.
Design: Otte Wallish.
Date of Issue: February, 1952.
Ceased to be legal tender: Febraury 22, 1980.

fractional currency to meet the need for small change. This was the mil and the pruta series, both issued in 1952.

FIFTY MILS

Size: 80 x 48 mm.

Dominant color: Red.

Face: Mosaic from the floor of an ancient synagogue at beit-Alpha; the denomination "Fifty Mils" and "Israel" in Hebrew and Arabic.

Back: Mosaic from the floor of an ancient synagogue at Beit-alpha; the denomination "50" .

Color of numbering: Black.

Signature: Minister of Finance E. Kaplan.

Design: Otte Wallish.

Date of Issue: February, 1952.

Ceased to be legal tender: Febraury 22, 1980.









50 PRUTA

Size: 70 x 42 mm.

Dominant color: Red or blue.

Face: Guilloches; the denomination "50" and "State of Israel" in Hebrew and Arabic; "Legal Tender" in Hebrew.

Back: Guilloches; the denomination "50".

Color of numbering: Green.

Signature: Minister of Finance E. Kaplan on some series, L. Eshkol on others; Accountant General M. Zagaggi on some series. A. Neeman on others (September 1952)

Design: I. David.

Date of Issue: March-July, 1952.

Ceased to be legal tender: Febraury 22, 1980.





100 PRUTA

Size: 70 x 42 mm.

Dominant color: Green or blue.

Face: Guilloches; the denomination "100" and "State of Israel" in Hebrew and Arabic; "Legal Tender" in Hebrew.

Back: Guilloches; the denomination "100".

Color of numbering: Green.

Signature: Minister of Finance E. Kaplan on some series, L. Eshkol on others; Accountant General M. Zagaggi on some series. A. Neeman on others (September 1952)

Design: I. David.

Date of Issue: March-July, 1952.

Ceased to be legal tender: February 22, 1980.





250 PRUTA

Size: 100 x 55 mm.

Dominant color: Green.

Face: Guilloches; the denomination "Two Hundred and Fifty Pruta" and "State of Israel" in Hebrew and Arabic; "Legal Tender" in Hebrew.

Back: View of Lake Kinneret; the denomination "250".

Color of numbering: Black.

Signature: Minister of Finance L. Eshkol; Comptroller General A. Neeman.

Design: Shamir Brothers.

Date of Issue: December 10, 1953.

Ceased to be legal tender: February 22, 1980.

"Camps in Paradise" Camp money in the Netherlands Indies

by Hans P. van Weeren, I.B.S.N. #LM-85

Camp money in the Netherlands Indies can be subdivided into two groups: camp notes that were issued by the Dutch authorities and camp notes issued during the occupation by the Japanese.

1. Camp money issued by the Dutch authorities.

On May 10th, 1940 with the code "Berlijn" the Dutch authorities in the Netherlands Indies were informed that Germany had invaded the Netherlands. It was the beginning of the internment of German citizens in the archipelago. Both notorious national-socialists (nazi's) and harmless Germans were interned pending further investigation. Preparation for this internment was very limited, in part to minimize the risk of leaking of information on measures to be taken. The only thing that had been decided was who should be arrested.

The following locations were designated as initial temporary camps: the island Onrust in the bay of Batavia, the Ngawi military camp by Madioen (East Java province), a former shooting range at Takengon (for Atjeh and related areas), Pematang Siantar and Medan (Sumatra East Coast), Pagar Alam and Lahat (Palembang Residency), and Fort de Kock (West Coast Residency). In addition there were centres established at Sintang, Teloek Bajoer, Kandangang and Long Iram on Borneo, and at Sasaran, Menado, Sengkang and Makassar on Celebes.

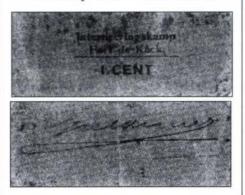
During a visit to Onrust on May 31, 1940 Governor-General A.W.L. Tjarda van Starkenborgh Stachouwer noted the poor conditions in the camps and thus it was decided to build a central camp for men. The Germans insisted the camp be built in a cool climate and as a result the central camp was built in Alasvallei in South Atjeh. From this period we know of camp money from Fort de Kock and Alasvallei.

Internment camp Fort de Kock (now Bukittinggi)

Approximately 300 internees were housed in the "Opleidingsschool voor Inlandse Ambtenaren" (a school for training local government officials). One of the last transports to the central camp at Alasvallei was on February 22, 1941 and came from the camp at Fort de Kock (now Bukittinggi). This camp had been kept functioning for this long because it was one of the best. Subsequently, it was used as a camp for German women who later were released when the Japanese conquered Fort de Kock. Figures 1 and 2 are the face and back of a camp note of 1 cent from internment camp Fort de Kock. On the back is a stamped signature which could be from sub-lieutenant Manuel who was the camp commander.

Internment camp Alasvallei

This camp was built in 1940 and



Figures 1 and 2





Figures 3 and 4

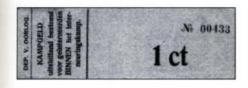
was known by the Dutch as Lawé Singala-gala. By the Germans it was known as Alasvalei or Kota Tjané (the name of the nearby town).

All internees received an allowance of 10 cents a day. Those whose personal property was held by the "Weeskamers" (Courts of Chancery) could receive an additional 10 guilders a month in exchange for some personal effects. This made living somewhat easier. This was only possible for Germans who had possessions in the Netherlands Indies, mainly those who lived or worked there as for example clergy or planters on plantations.

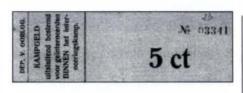
To get an idea of what one could buy with these amounts we can look at the price list of the canteen: bananas: 1 cent, lemonade and soda water: 10 cents a bottle, soap: 13 cents, toothpaste: 33 cents, a toothbrush: 5 cents, a shirt: 26 cents, chocolate: 9 cents, cigarettes: 10 or 12 cents a pack.

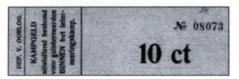


Figure 5









Figures 6-9

First series

It is likely that initially locally printed camp notes were issued. We see these first notes from "Interneeringskamp Alasvallei" (Internment camp Alasvallei) in figures 3 and 4 depicting notes of 1 cent on white paper and 5 cent on blue paper. In figure 5 we see a 1 cent note with a Japanese occupation stamp affixed. The stamp is a 60 ct Sumatra machine T-overprint with an illegible cancel. As the cancel does not tie the stamp to the note this item is most likely a souvenir or a fantasy product.

Second series

In figures 6 through 9 we see the second series of camp notes. They were printed on security paper (if photocopied a honey comb design would show) with a square blind impression in the area where the value was printed (one can most clearly see this on the 2 1/2 cent note). It is reasonable to assume this series was centrally printed under



Figure 10

the authority of the Netherlands Indies for use in all the camps. Thus far, however, they are only known from the Alasvallei camp.

Figure 10 shows the back side of the 10 cent note of picture 9. Here someone made a note, primarily in Russian, that this is camp money in use from 1940-1941 from Koeta Radja, Sumatra near the Toba Lake. A similar note is found on the back side of the 1 cent note (figure 3). It is probable that these items were from a person who was released after the Japanese occupation and who returned to Germany via the Soviet Union. This route was used until the Germans invaded the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941. A couple of these

camp notes appeared a few years ago in the former German Democratic Republic and in Austria.

Figure 11 shows a censored postcard from Karl Niemann from Alasvallei to Olga Niemann in

"Beschermingskamp" (Civil internees camp) Raja. The internees were allowed to write a post card twice a week with a maximum of 100 words hand written or 175 words typed. The card was written on November 13th, 1941 at Koeta Tjané, cancelled "CDT Intern. Kamp Koetatjané" (Commander Internment camp Koetatjané), November 15, 1941; Medan 15, November 1941, 17:00 and Brastigi November 25, 1941. From a note on the back side it appears the card was received by the addressee on November 27, 1941. Karl Niemann writes he is in fine health, but that "Geld reicht kaum", thus that he hardly had enough money.

2. Camp money issued during the Japanese occupation

During the Japanese occupation, no Japanese camp notes were issued. However, the Japanese did issue their own bank notes, the well known Japanese Invasion Money (JIM-notes). This money was also widely used inside the camps. During 1942 a series was issued in



Figure 11

Dutch with values of 1, 5, 10, 50 cents and 1, 5 and 10 guilders. In 1944 and 1945 new notes were issued in Malay and Japanese with values of 1, 5, 10 and 100 roepiah. Towards the end of the war a different note of 100 roepiah was issued on Sumatra. A 1000 roepiah note of the same design is also known but it is doubtful it was ever circulated. One should also note that money from other Japanese areas was also valid. In particular on Sumatra money from Malaya was frequently used. Coins of 1, 5 and 10 sen were minted but were not circulated on large scale. The Netherlands Indies coins and bank notes were also considered legal tender during the whole occupation period.

There were a number of camps where the internees themselves issued camp money, some of it very primitive. These include the following.

Barak 19

Figure 12 depicts a 1 cent note from "Krijgsgevangen Bank P/19" (Prisoner of War Bank P/19). The note has two unknown initials and a signature which is probably that of Tempelman Plat.

Barracks camp 10th Infantry Battalion Koningsplein Batavia

In figure 13 we see a 1 cent note from the (transit) POW camp located on the terrain of the 10th Infantry Battalion at Koningsplein, Batavia. POWs received these notes for work or services up to a maximum of 10 cents a day. The signature is that of the commander, lieutenant colonel L.F. Lanzing. In the book by Ogawa and others (see documentation), on



Figure 12

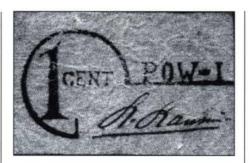


Figure 13

page 100, the name mentioned is "Lanting", which is probably incorrectly spelled.

Tjimahi

Tjimahi was a large garrison location near Bandoeng on West Java. Here the Japanese established an internment camp and several POW camps which functioned for several periods during the occupation. The former military hospital functioned as a general camp hospital. Three series of camp money are known from the various Tjimahi camps as follows.

2.3.1 Tjimahi, the "Kalen Koppen" camp (Bald Head Camp).

The railway camp Tjimahi (used by the army for military transport) functioned as a POW camp from April to October 1942. Reportedly the POWs let their heads be shaved in the belief that the Japanese were less likely to beat bald prisoners and to combat lice. From this camp are known bamboo tokens in which values had been burnt. Tokens were valued in cents or in products as described below:

1 cent on a square piece of bamboo

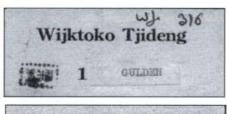
- with vertically "IK" (internment camp) with in between 1 and C to mean 1 cent.
- 3 cent on a square depicting two poles and barbed wire with "KKK" (Kalen Koppen Kamp) and the number 3. It is doubtful if the 3 cent was ever circulated. There is an essay of a 2 cent in the same design (Bronbeek museum Arnhem, the Netherlands).
- 10 cent with on the face "TMI" (Tjimahi?) and underneath 1942 with on the back 10 cent.

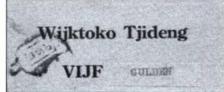
A picture of a cup of coffee with a plume of vapor forming the letters KKK. On the coffee cup is denoted "een koffie" showing its value as one cup of coffee. The Dutch camp leaders gave a few of these tokens each week to those prisoners which did not have money of their own.

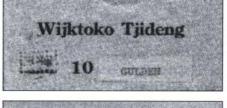
A picture of barbed wire with through it the letters KKK and underneath the word "SHAG" (tobacco). In the beginning there was a small tobacco factory in the camp. The tobacco was packed in dried banana leaves. When purchasing a package one received a shag token. Ten such tokens could then be exchanged for a free package of tobacco.

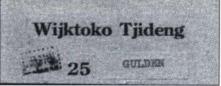
2.3.2 Tjimahi, 4th and 9th battalion internment camp.

In figures 19 and 20 we see 1 and 5 cent notes with a stamped signature. In figure 21 we see the back of the 5 cent from figure 20 with the indication "Interneeringskamp Tjimahi 4de Bat. 22/6-'42-". In figures 22 and 23 we see the face and back of the 25 cent note in this series. This camp note is made from an unused cheque. One can partly see a stamped "CT. ADMIE. TJI..." which









Figures 15-18: four notes that were valid in Wijktoko Tjideng (District shop Tjideng camp)



Figure 19

probably stands for Commander Administration Tjimahi. This camp reached a maximum number of nearly 12.400 internees in October 1944.

2.3.3 Tjimahi, Military hospital

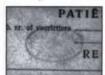


Figure 14

The military hospital was situated across from the enormous 4th and 9th battalion encampment. The camp remained

administratively under the battalion jurisdiction until April 1945. Figure 14 shows a camp note made from a carton patient medical registration card. It does not indicate a value, only an oval stamp "Hospitaal (open cross) Tjimahi". This camp note is from around 1944 and had a value of 10 cents.

Wijktoko Tjideng (Batavia, now Jakarta)

The women's camp Tjideng was in effect a part of Batavia (in the West-Petodjo area) that had been transformed into an internment camp. Figure 15 through 18 show a series of four notes that were valid in Wijktoko Tjideng (District shop Tjideng camp). These were notes of 1, 5, 10 and 25 cent over which were affixed new values in guilders. Because of the devaluation of the notes put into circulation by the Japanese, the lower values were no longer useful.

The notes have impressions of Japanese coins. Two types of coins were used for this: the 1 shu silver coin (small, see the 1, 10 and 25 gld); the 1 bu





Figure 20

silver coin (large, see the 5 gld). It appears these impressions were used as authenticity marks to prevent falsification. It is unclear whether the type of coin used was related to the value of the note. In any event on the 1 guilder note one finds both the small and large coin impressions.

Boeboetan prison at Soerabajacentrum

Figure 24 shows a hand written camp note of 1 cent from Boeboetan dated 15/2 '43 with twice the serial number E 0751 and a signature.

During the first months of the occupation this prison was a collection point for interned officials and other civilian men from Soerabaja, East Java and parts of Middle Java. To the extent they were not released (workers and Indo-Europeans with salaries less than 100 guilders per month) they were transferred to Ngawi end of February 1943. In the latter part of the year the prison was used primarily to intern non-Dutch nationals. In addition to being an internment camp, this prison was used as a normal prison during the occupation period.

Ngawi, East Java province (Dutch name: Fort van den Bosch).

Figures 25 and 26 show two hand written notes from Ngawi, serial



Figures 22 and 23: notes the impressions of Japanese coins.

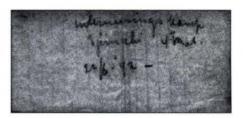


Figure 21

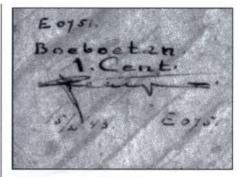
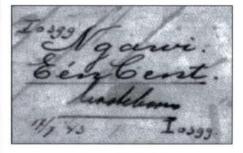


Figure 24

numbers I 0399 and N 0153, both with differing signatures. The notes are dated 17/7 '43 and 25/10 '43, respectively.

Fort van den Bosch (Van den Bosch fortress) functioned for several months during 1940 as an internment camp for Germans, NSB party members (the Dutch nationalist-socialist (pro-nazi) party) and others who were deemed to be dangerous by the state and were arrested in May 1940 when Ger-





Figures 25 and 26

Application for Membership

many invaded the Netherlands. The fortress was from February 1943 to February 1944 a collection/internment camp for "European" men including many high level officials and employees from Middle and East Java. The transport from the Boeboetan prison from Soerabaja arrived in Ngawi on February 27th, 1943. This group was later transferred to the barracks of the 4th and 9th battalion at Tjimahi. From the end of January 1945 the Ngawi camp was used for Indo-European boys, men and a number of young women who were arrested on suspicion of anti-Japanese activities.

Unknown

In figure 27 we see a camp note with "1 EEN CENT" (1 cent). Presumably it is from a camp in the Netherlands



Figure 27

Indies. There is no further information available.

With thanks to Nico L.M.
Arkesteijn, William Barrett, Paul
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van Nieuwkerk and Hélène
Engelkamp.

The author would appreciate any reactions to this article. He can be reached by email at: hans@vanweeren.nl.com

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Signature of Applicant							

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Ancillary Items for a Bank Note Collector

by Fred Schwan, I.B.N.S. #LM-06

It comes as no surprise to you that I like to discover, examine, and ultimately collect bank notes.

I have been intrigued by paper money for a long time. Just about every type interests me at least a little bit, or has in the past. However, at least in my opinion, the paper money hobby consists of more than bank notes, lots more.

The first thing that comes to mind is books. Yes, I have an extensive paper money library and I like my books a lot too. Some people collect the books more than or even to the exclusion of the notes themselves. I do not go that far, but I could imagine that I might in the future.

There are other things too. One category that I really like is equipment associated with bank note manufacture and use. I stop short of wanting printing presses and big equipment like that. I can state this rather emphatically because I went through that stage!

I once owned a spider press and had visions of myself covered with ink and having a big grin. I was happy the day that I obtained the press, but I was VERY happy on the day that I got rid of it! Now I limit myself to small items.

Weights have been manufactured for the sole purpose of flattening bank notes.

Sorting trays are interesting. A very interesting subcategory is anticounterfeiting devices.

I recently bought at auction a spuriometer. This device was supposed to help detect counterfeits by calculating mechanically the relationships between the various numbers on the face of United States paper money. It was a pure hoax.

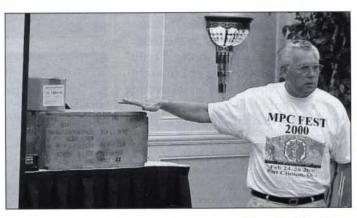
There are other anticounterfeiting devices too. I have my eye on an electric counting machine so there is no end to the possibilities.

All of this has been in the way of a long introduction to today's topic which I call throw away items. These are items that are expected to fulfill their function

and be discarded. A favorite for me was a wooden shipping crate that was used to ship military payment certificates (Series 691) to Korea in the 1970s. This item was sold at MPCFest II in 2001. Eventually, I obtained one of the cardboard boxes from inside the wooden crate. These are great, if a little whacky, throw aways.

Better known and more commonly collected are straps (often called wrappers) and end labels from packages of notes. In the 1970s there was a fad of collecting United States Federal Reserve note (and other types too) end labels with the corresponding first and last notes because those two serial numbers are on the labels. Somehow, a few of these labels were saved for military payment certificates and one set with the first and last note is known. All of these are scarce, or even rare, I am talking here about the issued series here. It is possible or even likely that these sets can be assembled for the unissued series.

A few years ago at the Florida United Numismatists convention in Orlando, a collector showed me a wrapper for military payment certificates. It was different than any I had seen before. Instead of being a band created and issued by the Bureau of Engraving and Printing,



Marv Mericle sells a box that contained MPC.

this one had been created by American Express for use in military banking facilities in Vietnam. The bands had printed text identifying the bank and that they were intended for use with MPC. The band in question also had handwriting information that made it even more interesting.

Of course I really wanted this band for my own collection so I declared negotiations open. Somewhat to my surprise the collector negotiated back.

Ultimately, I crushed the record for a strap used for MPC. Possibly it was a record price for any strap; I am not sure.

About five years ago, a collector sent me a photocopy of an item that he had obtained at an area coin show. It was an Allied military currency end label. I was in love. I really wanted that throwaway item. I figured that it belonged in my collection.

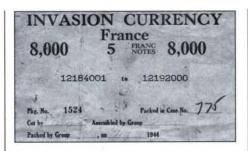
I wrote to the collector suggesting that if he was ever willing to part with it, that I would provide it with a good home. I did not even receive a response, but I did not forget. Last year the collector started selling his collection. Two friends of mine independently visited him to buy

some notes. I asked both of them to inquire about and obtain MY label. No luck, they both reported that it was not there.

A few days ago, I received a nondescript envelope in the mail from the gentleman. It included the label and a very nice letter. The remembered my desire for the item and my offer of a good home. I only had to send him whatever I thought it is worth. Now that is an interesting problem, but I will have solved that by the time that this appears in the journal.

Specifically the label was for Allied military 5 franc notes. This is among the most common issues found in collections around the world so you almost certainly know the note, even if you do not collect military or French notes.

The label is very interesting. The first and possibly most striking thing is the title used for the issue invasion currency. I have not heard that terminology used in an official way. I expected Allied Military Currency, Allied Military Franc Currency, Supplemental Currency, Supplemental



End label for Allied Military 5 franc notes.

tal Franc Currency or something similar. The package was prepared on February 17, 1944. This was about four months before D-Day, June 6th, the issue date for supplemental francs.

The serial numbers of the first and last note are printed on the label just as expected. In this case 12184001 to 12192000.

I gloated about this find in MPCGram (for a free subscription write MPCGram@yahoo.com). I was pleased (but not surprised considering the source) when Neil Shafer wrote to report that he had a similar label for Allied military 1 mark

Neil reports the title is Allied

Military Mark Currency/ Germany, also for 8000 notes, serial number range 58464001 to 58472000. Mine was Pkg. No. 7309, packed in case no. 6893, assembled by group 1, packed by group 1, and dated March 28, 1944. Neil also reports that his label came from the Jim Wade collection in 1968.

It was a busy time at Forbes in early 1944 with the production of these two issues of Allied military currency. We have known this for a long time, but the proximity of the two dates helps bring that fact into focus.

As soon as I obtained my label, the serial number range printed thereon called to me and I started looking for notes that fell into that range. I think that it is my responsibility to find as many of those 8000 notes as I can! That may not be easy. It seems easy since there are 8000 notes represented, but 160,000,000 notes were printed! That means that I am looking for one in twenty thousand!

Neil agreed that this is a good task so he is looking for notes from his package. His task is slightly easier with only 114 million notes printed!

We can both use your help on this project. Please look in your collections for our notes. If you do not have any, please write down the numbers and carry them with you to any events where you might see some. Of course, we (I) would like to receive reports of any other Allied military end labels (fred@papermoneyworld.net, or 132 E. Second Street, Port Clinton, OH 43452).

Neil and Freds special want list:

1 Allied military mark from serial number range 58464001 to 58472000

5 Allied military franc from range 12184001 to 12192000

Mili cates

4,000 \$5 \$20,000

D01512001D to D01516000D

Packed in Case No. Carton No. 379

Cartoned by on 6-2/-1962

End label for MPC, Series 691 \$5.

Rachel Notes

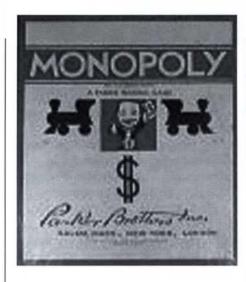
Some of the Many Ways to Make \$15,140

by Rachel Feller

A favorite game for nearly 70 years, Monopoly can also boast the most printed currency for every year. Parker Brothers prints over 50 billion dollars in Monopoly money annually. Of course, they also build an estimated hundred million houses per year. Quite a company, all in all. Each game set comes with \$15,140 worth of play money. This amount has not changed, nor have the prices on the game. Monopoly is a game free of the realities of inflation. The only change that has been made was done in 1936, when the tax amounts were adjusted.

There is some controversy about the story behind Monopoly. It begins either in 1934, with Charles Darrow, or else earlier, in 1904, with Lizzie Magie. When the 1974 game Anti-Monopoly ran into a lawsuit, Dr. Ralph Anspach, its creator, became the catalyst for a series of discoveries about the actual origin of the game of Monopoly. I will briefly describe both versions, as the history is intriguing.

The Lizzie Magie story begins with a tax movement. Henry George led people in the fight for a single federal tax based on land owner-



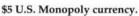
ship. He thought that this would help alleviate some of the inequalities between the rich few, or landlords, and the poor majority, the tenants. To teach George's ideas, Magie created a game that she called "The Landlord's Game." The game is similar in many respects to Monopoly. However, it is less about trying to win and more about showing how difficult life can be for the renters. The setup was similar to the Monopoly of today, but with less flashy names for streets. Instead

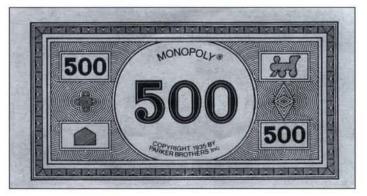
there were properties like "Poverty Place" and "Lord Blueblood's Estate."

Magie's game spread quickly among her Quaker friends. She received a patent for the game in early 1904. At this time, it was most common for people to make their own version of the game, usually on a table cloth. Rules were changed as time went on and different people tried to improve on the game. During this time the name of the game also changed, being sold under names like Finance, eventually leading to the name we now know and love: Monopoly.

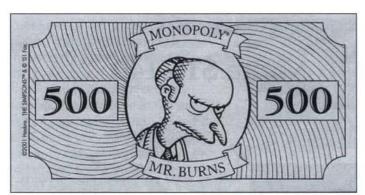
The version, somewhat fairytale-like, that is told by Parker Brothers is that Charles Darrow, distraught over his life in the Depression, fathered the game. He and friends would play it on his kitchen table, longing to be able to spend money in the real world the way they could in the game. In 1934, Darrow approached Parker Brothers with his idea, but was rejected. Among the 52 reasons for rejecting him were that the game would take too long and that the rules were just too complicated.







\$500 U.S. Monopoly currency.



From the Simpson's version of the same

Not abandoning the idea yet,
Darrow got together with a printerfriend and produced 5,000 sets for a
Philadelphia department store. The
response was immediately enthusiastic. Darrow started having trouble
keeping up with demand, and so he
again approached Parker Brothers.
This time around, he was successful.
The numbers were enough to
seduce the company into sponsoring him. Today, Hasbro owns both
Parker Brothers and Monopoly. The
game has sold over 200 million
copies across the world.

Today, there are all sorts of versions of Monopoly. It has been sold in over eighty countries and in twenty-six different languages. Beyond that, there are cultural versions. From the "I Love Lucy" edition to the Dale Earnhardt Jr. edition, Monopoly covers all sorts of countries, cities, television shows, sports teams, and movies. It also exists in travel versions, junior versions, bible versions, and deluxe versions. There are Monopoly key rings, pens, tables, and computer-

ized versions. The popularity of the game in undeniable, and the options for recreating it are endless.

With these games, of course, comes interesting money. While many versions across the world have the basic bills, some have made adaptations. There are also different images to go along with themes.

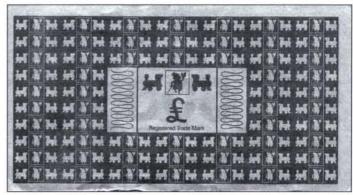
First, we should look back to the original Monopoly. The standard edition comes with denominations of 1, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, and 500. In the traditional Monopoly set, the colors are white, pink, yellow, green, blue, brown, and gold. The bills are pretty basic — on the front they have a large numeral in the center and on the upper left and lower right corners. In the upper right corner is a train, and in the lower left a house. The reverse is blank.

A lot of the alternative Monopoly games keep this standard money. International games have this as the standard. However, sometimes there are subtle, or even considerable changes made to the appearance of the notes and their color. For in-

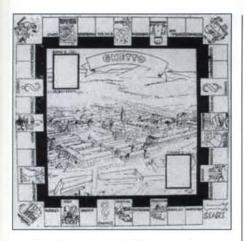
stance, the British Monopoly money is nearly identical on the face, but the colors are different. The British note also has a printed back, with many small trains facing right and left, as well as the silhouette of Mr. Monopoly, also sometimes called Rich Uncle Pennybags. In the center is a rectangle with a left-facing train, Mr. Monopoly, and a right-facing train. Beneath these is a large pound symbol.

In Israel, the game originally had the same design as the original Monopoly, but later the money changed to look like real Israeli money, with political figures on it. In many of the themed games, the money takes on the theme. Different characters or figures or even vehicles and objects take the center of the different denominations. Illustrated here is the \$500 note from the Simpsons game, which features Mr. Burns slyly looking out as the center vignette. The Deluxe Edition has different, brighter colors. The junior versions, which now also come in various themes, have bigger images on the money, as well as brightly colored pieces. In one of the newest versions of the game, the shinyboxed America Special Edition "Celebrating Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Properties," the money looks more like American money, all done in green. Everything is patriotic in this game, from tokens shaped like apple pie and the Liberty Bell, to dice, houses, and hotels done in red, white, and blue.





£500 face and back for the English Monopoly version.



The Theresienstadt Ghetto version.

Monopoly has also played an interesting part in history. I recall running into this numerous times playing Trivial Pursuit, so keep it in mind: Monopoly was banned in communist Russia. Of course this makes some sense, as the game encourages the capitalist in all of us.

Also interesting is the use of Monopoly during the Second World War. P.O.W. camps in Germany were given Monopoly games. Soldiers received special games, which had escape maps, compasses, files, and real money hidden inside.

The most moving image of a Monopoly board I have seen was one from the exhibition "No Child's Play," arranged by Yad Vashem. This handmade board was made in Theresienstadt Ghetto. This secret game could be used simply to play, but most importantly it is believed to have been used to teach children the layout of the ghetto, and particularly where their parents were living in relation to them. Other important sites of the ghetto could also be learned. Having visited Terezin this past fall, I can see that the Monopoly board style would be in many ways ideal for this, as the ghetto did have a large square in the center, as the game board has. Although many of the cards are directly drawn from the original game, there are also several that reflect life in the ghetto. Two that were particularly telling were: "Fine because of infringement of the Ghetto rules" and "Increase of your working qualifications. You get 45." The money amounts were denoted in the Czech Kronen, just like the famous ghetto currency of 1943, although the game is written out in German.

We often use the term "Monopoly Money" in a derogatory way. We



From the ghetto version of Monopoly.

use it to describe counterfeit bank notes, or to poke fun at the new American money. However, there is so much interesting history behind the game, and even within the money of the game. I recall learning about the euro first from a Monopoly game themed on the European Union. I learned Monopoly on the British version, and so I had always thought the British streets were the norm, as well as the British pound as the standard. (Studying in London last term was that much easier geographically by having the British game. I knew what areas were bad and which ones would be too pricey for me.)

Today, Monopoly is a bit out of control, perhaps. I don't know that we need an adult and junior version both based on Disney characters, or a Monopoly game for most of the large universities in the country. However, it is an interesting game that can be used to show pride in all sorts of areas. I am sure someone out there is collecting the Monopoly money, and has probably become overwhelmed by the number of games out now. I would be interested to hear any more about Monopoly money, as I had trouble sifting through all of the games on the market. Until then, keep buying and selling and enjoying the game.

THE INTERNATIONAL BANK NOTE SOCIETY

Minutes of the Board Meeting Hotel Lobelia, Neerham 17, Valkenburg, The Netherlands Sunday April 6, 2003

Directors Attending: Bob Brooks, President-Chair of Meeting; Murray Hanewich, 1st Vice President; David Carew, U.K.; Milt Blackburn, Canada; Tony Pisciotta, U.S.A.; Cem Barlok, Turkey; Clyde Reedy, U.S.A.; Roy Spick, U.K.; David Hunt, U.K.; Ludek Vostal, Czech Republic; Joel Shafer, U.S.A.

Excused: Frank Spinelli, Italy.

Members of the Society & Guests Attending: Mrs. Roy Spick, U.K.; Michael Turner, Germany.

The Chair called the meeting to order at 08:07 and welcomed directors and members.

Apologies for non-attendance were received from European Secretary, Frank Spinelli.

- President Brooks reported on his ongoing investigation of books (stamped: "Property of I.B.N.S. Library") appearing on eBay.
- Chair announced that the new I.B.N.S. Directory has been promised to be published by the Memphis Show (June) by General Secretary, Milan Alusic.
- · Moved and seconded (Pisciotta/Blackburn) to approve London Board Meeting minutes.
- President Brooks stated that he had received 3 emails from Past President Guido Crapanzano, which were presented and read to
 the Board by Director Reedy. In two of these emails, Past President Crapanzano stated that he wished to resign from I.B.N.S.
 After some discussion, it was decided that this constituted a formal resignation.
 - It was moved and seconded (Reedy/Hunt) to accept the resignation of Past President Crapanzano and that President Brooks send a formal letter to Past President Crapanzano, thanking him for his past contributions to the Society and expressing the Society's regret at his resignation.
- Chair reported on removing dated material from the I.B.N.S. Website, which was being carried out.
- Hunt & Brooks gave the Auctioneers report mentioning that the main problem continue to be members not understanding rules laid out in auction catalogue.
- Awards Program Manager, Blackburn reported on the future manufacture of I.B.N.S. medals and awards.
- Grievance/Discipline Committee Chair, David Carew reported that of the 18 cases being handled most have been settled
 amicably and only 2 cases remain pending. These being John Warner complaints about Richard Dennett and Duarte Mendonca
 complaints about Ian Marshall.

New Business:

- Chair announced new Sterling/Dollar rates. The new rate will be US\$1.55 to £1.
- This will be used for advertising rates in the Journal and the same as present membership dues rate.
- Reedy talked of Marcus Turner's interest in taking over the position of Education Chair from L. Smulczenski. Reedy proposed
 that Turner takeover as Education Chair from Smulczenski. Vote: Unanimous, carried. It was asked that Turner submit a
 proposal for the Memphis Board Meeting.
- Chair requested Chris Zellweger to provide a list of current "operating" chapters of the I.B.N.S. for Memphis meeting. M.
 Hanewich volunteered to contact all current chapters for a list of Officers and current membership status on behalf of Zellweger and submit a report to the Memphis Board Meeting.
- Mr Turner has requested that the Society purchase certain equipment to help in his new duties. It was decided that he should
 prepare and present a formal request at the board meeting in Memphis. President Brooks will inform Mr. Turner of this request.

Meeting adjourned at 09:25

Minutes taken by: Murray Hanewich 1st Vice/Newsletter Editor

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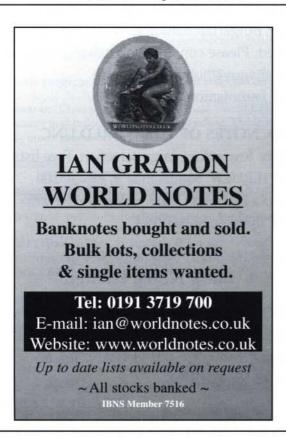


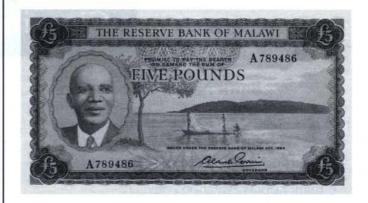
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